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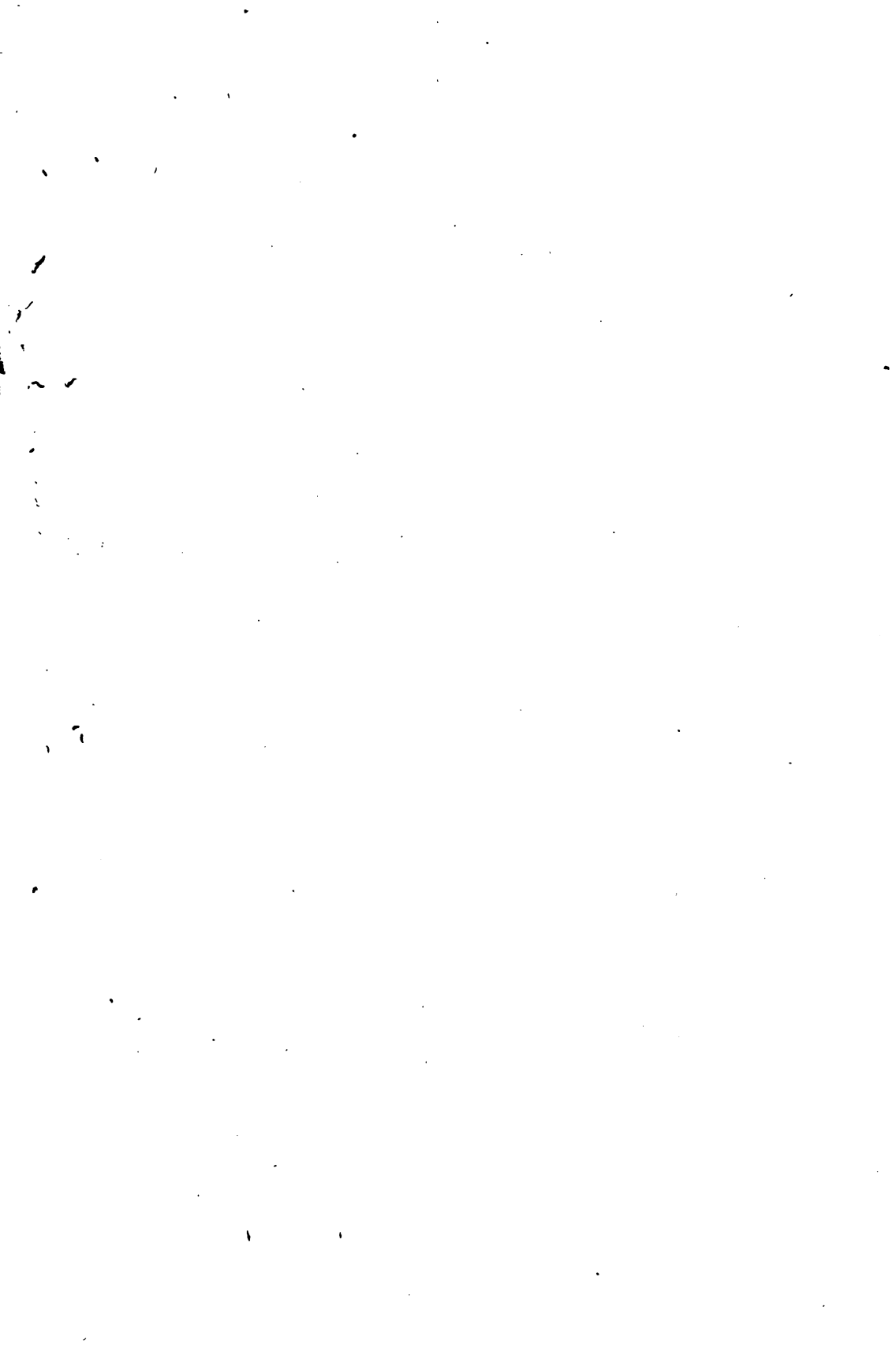
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HARVARD UNIVERSITY



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OF EDUCATION**



SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JOURNAL

OF

PROCEEDINGS *AND* ADDRESSES

OF THE

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

COLUMBIA, S. C.,

DECEMBER 26-29, 1901.

1902

Published by the Association.

FOR SALE BY THE

SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

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1901



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CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Place.	President.	Date.
I. Morehead City	J. H. Shinn	July, 1890
Montgomery	S. Palmer	
II. Lookout Mountain	J. H. Shinn	July, 1891
III. Atlanta	S. Palmer	July, 1892
IV. Louisville	W. F. Slaton	July, 1893
V. Galveston	W. H. Bartholomew	Dec., 1894
VI. Hot Springs	J. R. Preston	Dec., 1895
VII. Mobile	J. H. Phillips	Dec., 1896
VIII. New Orleans	Geo. J. Ramsey	Dec., 1898
IX. Memphis	Junius Jordan	Dec., 1899
X. Richmond	Robert Burwell Fulton	Dec., 1900
XI. Columbia	G. R. Glenn	Dec., 1901

~~25~~ There was no meeting of the Association in 1897, because of yellow fever at New Orleans, which city had been selected as the place of meeting.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OFFICERS FOR 1901-1902

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION

President—G. R. Glenn, Atlanta, Ga.

Vice-President—R. B. Fulton, University, Miss.

Treasurer—Frank M. Smith, Concord, Tenn.

Secretary—P. P. Claxton, Greensboro, N. C.

DEPARTMENTS

SUPERINTENDENCE

President—R. J. Tighe, Asheville, N. C.

Vice-President—J. W. Southall, Richmond, Va.

Secretary—H. A. Hayes, West Point, Miss.

HIGHER EDUCATION

President—Charles W. Dabney, Knoxville, Tenn.

Vice-President—Edwin A. Alderman, New Orleans, La.

Secretary—W. B. Smith, New Orleans, La.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

President—S. A. Mynders, Jackson, Tenn.

Vice-President—Robert Bingham, Asheville, N. C.

Secretary—Isoline Rodd, New Orleans, La.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

President—Lucy Davis, Williamsburg, Va.

Secretary—Rose Bennett, Fayetteville, Ark.

KINDERGARTENS

President—Patty S. Hill, Louisville, Ky.

Vice-President—Caroline M. C. Hart, Baltimore, Md.

Secretary—Minnie Macfeat, Rock Hill, S. C.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

President—Robert Frazer, Farmville, Va.

Vice-President—Wickliffe Rose, Nashville, Tenn.

Secretary—T. F. McBeath, Jacksonville, Fla.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

President—D. B. Johnson, Rock Hill, S. C.

Vice-President—Lyman Hall, Atlanta, Ga.

Secretary—D. H. Hill, Raleigh, N. C.

STATE MANAGERS

Alabama	J. H. PHILLIPS	Birmingham
Arkansas	JAMES H. WITHERSPOON	Pine Bluff
Florida	T. F. McBEATH	Jacksonville
Georgia	CARLTON B. GIBSON	Columbus
Kentucky	S. F. FROGGE	Frankfort
Louisiana	WARREN EASTON	New Orleans
Maryland	IRA REMSEN	Baltimore
	M. BATES STEPHENS	Baltimore
Mississippi	E. E. BASS	Greenville
Missouri	H. W. PRENTISS	St. Louis
North Carolina ..	ALEX GRAHAM	Charlotte
South Carolina ..	D. B. JOHNSON	Rock Hill
Tennessee	C. S. DOUGLASS	Gallatin
Texas	THOMAS M. COLSTON	San Antonio
Virginia	HARRIS HART	Roanoke
West Virginia ...	H. B. WORK	Wheeling

LOCAL COMMITTEES

General Executive Committee: W. A. Clark, Chairman; Zach McGhee, Secretary; August Kohn, Treasurer.

Reception: R. P. Pell, Chairman.

Accommodations and Information: E. J. Watson, Chairman.

Finance: Willie Jones, Chairman.

Membership: John J. McMahan, Chairman.

Publicity and Printing: N. G. Gonzales, Chairman.

Transportation: R. L. Seay, Chairman.

Entertainment and Halls: A. E. Gonzales, Chairman.

Music: E. B. Clark, Chairman.

Badges: T. S. Bryan, Chairman.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF THE

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

December 28, 1901

STATEMENT OF MONEYS RECEIVED AND DISBURSED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

RECEIPTS

From Prof. Thomas, 84 Richmond memberships	\$168 00
From J. L. Hill, 48 cash memberships	96 00
From E. S. Goodman, Sect. Richmond Chamber Commerce, Rail- road coupons	472 00
From memberships secured since the Richmond meeting	52 00
From sale of Proceedings of 9th and 10th Annual Meetings	143 33
Total	\$931 33

EXPENDITURES

I. N. Jones & Son, printing and binding Proceedings of Richmond meeting	\$426 75
J. H. Hinemon, Secretary Organization Committee, for postage and printing	5 50
Sudie L. Huggins, stenographer at Richmond meeting	20 00
J. J. Stone, printing and stationery	33 00
J. L. Hill, printing tickets	5 50
Postage	119 22
Telegrams	13 32
Freight, drayage, blank book, wrapping paper, twine, etc	7 00
Stenographer and typewriter, Jan. 1 to June 1	50 00
Office help from Oct. 1 to Jan. 1, 1902	30 00
Extra office help	3 50
Expenses to Chattanooga, Knoxville, Asheville and Columbia.....	41 25
Balance due for 1900	134 70
Check to Treasurer Frank M. Smith	41 59
Total	\$931 33

Approved:

By order Executive Committee.

WM. N. SHEATS,

President Southern Educational Association.

Columbia, S. C., December 28, 1901.

STATEMENT OF THE TREASURER OF THE SOUTHERN
EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Balance on hand, December 29, 1901	\$207 03
1900. December, 1901—Check to Pres. R. B. Fulton, for expenses	\$26 55
1901. April, —.—Check to Richmond Transfer Co.....	60 00— 86 55
Balance on hand December 29, 1901	\$120 48

FRANK M. SMITH,
Treasurer Southern Educational Association.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

COLUMBIA, S. C., DECEMBER 26, 27, 28, 29, 1901

FIRST EVENING'S PROCEEDINGS

Columbia Theatre—Thursday, December 26, 8 P. M.

The Eleventh Annual convention of the Southern Educational Association met in the Columbia Theatre, Columbia, S. C., at 8 p. m., December 26, 1901.

W. A. Clark, chairman of the local Executive Committee, called the convention to order.

The proceedings were opened with prayer by Bishop Ellison Capers, of South Carolina:

BISHOP ELLISON CAPERS' PRAYER

Almighty God, our Heavenly Father, who art the light of all wisdom; the true light that lighteth every mind that cometh into the world; whose grace is sufficient to inspire our hearts with a sense of duty to Thee, O Lord, and duty to our fellowmen; we come into Thy presence to invoke Thy blessing upon this assembly.

O Lord, we would ask Thee to grant us grace to realize the importance, and dignity, and usefulness of the great calling to which Thou hast appointed these, Thy servants. Give us all grace to realize, O Thou Great Teacher, that we, too, may teach, and that the highest and best that we can do for our fellowmen is to teach them the truth which leadeth them, in the way that leadeth us and them to life here and to life eternal hereafter.

We invoke, especially, Thy blessing on these, Thy servants, who are gathered together here in the interest of sound learning. Bless and inspire all their thoughts, and all their actions at this meeting, Holy Father, that they may realize that they are here in Thy service, and in the service of their fellowmen. Bless their deliberations, and inspire their hearts with zeal and interest in their sacred calling, and give them grace, O Holy Father, so to teach, and so to labor in the cause of sound and wholesome learning, as to be indeed, in each sphere they occupy, a blessing, in their holy calling, to them who shall come under their influence and under their teaching.

Bless the officers and members of this Association, Holy Father, and give them grace, we humbly beseech Thee, that they may realize in their profession, the privilege, as well as the dignity and the joy of their sacred calling. Inspire the hearts of all of us, who shall be, for a time, under their influence. So inspire our hearts that we shall go hence realizing that we have had, in their presence with us, a real congress of highest and best interests.

We invoke Thy blessing upon this assembly, Gracious God, in the name of the blessed Saviour, who has taught us to say: "Our Father, which art in Heaven. Hallowed be Thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done on earth as it is in Heaven. Give us this day, our daily bread. Forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive those who trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation; but deliver us from evil. Amen."

W. A. Clark, chairman of the local Executive Committee, then delivered the address of welcome.

Hon. G. R. Glenn, State School Commissioner of Georgia, and President of the Association, responded to the address of welcome.

Dr. Charles D. McIver, president of the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College, delivered an address on "Skillful Educational Leadership in the South."

The Association adjourned.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

Columbia Theatre—Friday, December 28, 9:30 A. M.

The convention was called to order by President Glenn.

Supt. Lawton B. Evans, of Augusta, Ga., read a paper on "The Mission of the Rural School."

This paper was discussed by W. H. Hand, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chester, S. C.

Hon. Wm. N. Sheats, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Florida, delivered an address on "School Supervision."

Hon. Wm. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, read a paper on "What the Child Gets from the Study of Geography."

President Glenn read a letter from the Secretary of the National Educational Association extending an invitation to the members of this Association to attend the meeting of the National Association at Minneapolis, July 7-11, 1902.

The President announced that he had received a telegram from Hon. T. F. Toon, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina, stating that Mr. Toon was too unwell to be present and read the paper which he had promised to read at this meeting.

Dr. C. W. Dabney moved that the Association, through the Secretary, send a telegram of love and sympathy to Gen. Toon. The motion was carried.

President Glenn suggested that committees on Resolutions and Nominations should be appointed and asked the pleasure of the convention upon the manner of appointing the committees.

Treasurer Frank M. Smith stated that it had been the custom for the delegates from the various states to meet and select one person from their particular state as a member of the committee on Resolutions and another person as a member of the committee on Nominations and he moved that that custom be adhered to, and that the persons selected for each committee be reported to the President at the night session. The motion was carried.

The meeting adjourned.

EVENING SESSION

Columbia Theatre—Friday, December 27, 7:30 P. M.

The Association was called to order by President Glenn.

Miss Elizabeth M. Getz, Supervisor of Drawing in the schools of Charleston, S. C., read a paper on "Modern Art Education in Public Schools." The paper was illustrated by numerous drawings made by the children in the public schools of Charleston.

Dr. J. L. M. Curry's name was on the programme for the evening, but he was absent, having been detained at his home by sickness. In referring to his absence, President Glenn said: You will all share my regret that we are denied the pleasure of hearing from a man who has done, perhaps, more for public education in the South than almost any other man we have had since we have been engaged in education; a man who has, perhaps, addressed more legislative assemblies, has had the opportunity to appeal to more bodies of men responsible for laws than any other man in the country; a man whose heart and mind, in recent years, has been devoted solely to the saving of children. I allude, of course, to Dr. J. L. M. Curry, the General Agent for the Peabody and Slater Funds, whose ministry of education in the South since the war has been perhaps the most successful ministry of any man engaged in educational work in the South. He has been detained by serious illness in his family. Portions of his paper will be read by Dr. McIver. It is entitled "Free Schools for all the People." Dr. Charles D. McIver then read the portion of Dr. Curry's paper which had been sent.

Dr. Chas. W. Dabney, President of the University of Tennessee, addressed the convention on the problem of our public schools.

President Glenn announced the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

J. H. Phillips, Alabama, *Chairman*

J. H. Witherspoon, Arkansas	Patterson Wardlaw, South Carolina
Lawton B. Evans, Georgia	Geo. W. Gordon, Tennessee
J. H. Van Sickle, Maryland	Thomas M. Colston, Texas

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Junius Jordan, Arkansas, *Chairman*

John W. Abercrombie, Alabama	W. P. Dobbins, Mississippi
T. J. Woofert, Georgia	W. K. Tate, South Carolina
H. B. McClellan, Kentucky	H. W. Lewis, Tennessee
Edward Scheib, Louisiana	Thos. M. Colston, Texas
Ira Remsen, Maryland	Robert Frazier, Virginia
Alex Graham, North Carolina	

The Association adjourned.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

Columbia Theatre—Saturday, December 28, 9:30 A. M.

The Association was called to order by President Glenn.

Dr. Junius Jordan, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, University of Arkansas, addressed the Association on "Summer Meetings of the Asso-

ciation on Lookout Mountain, and the Establishment of a Southern Chautauqua."

Treasurer Frank M. Smith moved that the Association express its sense that the Executive Committee be instructed to change the time of meeting from the Christmas holidays to sometime in July, care being taken that the date fixed shall not, in any way, conflict with the date of the meeting of the National Educational Association.

After a good deal of discussion the motion was adopted.

Mr. L. V. LaTaste offered the following resolution:

RESOLUTION ON CHILD LABOR

Resolved, That the Southern Educational Association deplores the employment in our mines, mills and factories, of children of immature age, and urges the immediate enactment of such special legislation as shall place just and humane restrictions upon child labor in the mines and manufacturing establishments of the southern states.

The resolution was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The Committee on Nominations recommended that the following officers be elected for the ensuing year:

OFFICERS FOR 1902

President—W. N. Sheats, Tallahassee, Fla.

Vice-President—G. R. Glenn, Atlanta, Ga.

Secretary—P. P. Claxton, Greensboro, N. C.

Treasurer—Frank M. Smith, Knoxville, Tenn.

The report was accepted and the officers unanimously elected.

Charles D. McIver, in behalf of the Southern Education Board, of which he is Secretary, made a statement to the Association in regard to the Conference for Education in the South, which will hold its fifth annual meeting about the first of May in Athens, Ga.

DR. MCIVER'S STATEMENT IN REGARD TO THE SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD

The campaign committee of the Southern Education Board, acting for the Conference, has been in session in Columbia during the past two days and has begun to arrange the programme for the meeting at Athens. There will be at this Conference several hundred people from the southern states and about 60 northern friends who are members of the Conference.

The origin of this Conference five years ago at Capon Springs, West Virginia, was explained. At first it was a conference of a few southern and a few northern men, all of whom were anxious to aid in any possible way the educational struggle going on in all parts of the south. Three annual meetings were held at Capon Springs, where the members of the conference were entertained by Major Sales at his hotel. Last year at Winston-Salem, North Carolina, the fourth annual session was held, and it was very largely attended both by northern and southern people. The Athens meeting will evidently be much more largely attended.

As the name implies, this is a Conference between people interested in the same cause. Its object is to promote in every possible way universal education. At the Winston-Salem Conference provision was made for a Southern Education Board which should have the right as the executive board of the Conference to collect money and to apply it to carrying out the purposes of the Conference. This Board consists of twelve men. Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of the firm of John Wanamaker, New York, is president of the board. Charles D. McIver, of North Carolina, is secretary. Mr. George Foster Peabody, of the firm of Spencer, Trask & Co., New York, is treasurer. The other nine members are President Charles W. Dabney of the University of Tennessee, President E. A. Alderman of Tulane University, New Orleans, Dr. H. B. Frissell of Hampton Institute, Virginia, W. H. Baldwin, Jr., president of the Long Island railway, Rev.

Dr. Wallace Buttrick of Albany, N. Y., Mr. H. H. Hanna of Indianapolis, Dr. Albert Shaw editor of *The Review of Reviews*, Mr. Walter H. Page editor of *The World's Work*, and Hon. J. L. M. Curry executive agent of the Peabody and Slater boards. Associated with the president as executive secretary, though not a member of the board, is Rev. Edgar Gardner Murphy, of Alabama.

This Southern Education Board will undertake with funds now in hand to aid in certain portions of the southern states campaigns now being made for local taxation to improve the public school system. To do this they have divided the work into two parts: A bureau of investigation and information is to be conducted under the directorship of Dr. Charles W. Dabney at Knoxville, Tenn. The business of this bureau will be to collect information and print it in such form as shall make effective campaign documents in favor of increasing public school facilities. The field work is placed in charge of three district directors, Messrs. Alderman, Frissell and McIver, and both the work of the information bureau and the field work is to be under the direction of Hon. J. L. M. Curry as supervising director.

The campaign committee, which has been in session here this week and which has absolute charge of the work undertaken by the conference, is composed of Messrs. Curry, Alderman, Frissell, Dabney and McIver. The entire work of the campaign committee will be for strengthening at every point the public school system. No money will be distributed by this committee to institutions of learning. The committee simply proposes to conduct a campaign in behalf of better school facilities for our children.

The campaign committee is arranging an attractive programme for the three-day meeting at Athens. Questions discussed there will be Local taxation for public schools, Industrial education, the Training of teachers, and Methods of securing better public school houses.

It is not the purpose of the Southern Education Board to undertake to inaugurate new enterprises but simply to strengthen what already exist. Whatever work it does will be done in harmony with the efforts of local school authorities.

The friends from the north have asked for the privilege of making a liberal contribution in money for this purpose, and they ask that the southern members of the board appointed on the campaign committee shall take absolute charge of the work and conduct it as seems best to them. Mr. George Foster Peabody, the treasurer of the board and the most liberal contributor, is a native of Columbus, Georgia, where he spent his boyhood. He has made liberal donations to educational and philanthropic enterprises in four or five southern states during the past year, his gifts being especially liberal to his native state.

Mr. Ogden, president of the board, last year brought a large company of friends on a special train, chartered at his own expense. Whether he will pursue the same course this year or not, the committee is not authorized to say. Whether he does so or not, a large number of northern friends will be present at the Conference.

Athens is the seat of the University of Georgia, the State Normal School of Georgia, and other educational institutions. It will open its homes and will entertain free 300 members of the Conference. It is expected that there will be a delegation of 20 or more southern men and women from each southern state.

Athens is fortunate to secure the Conference and the Conference is fortunate to be entertained by Athens. The Georgia legislature made formal request for the Conference to be held in that state.

The campaign committee desires the cooperation of all who are working for the upbuilding of the public school systems of the southern states. It hopes not to be misunderstood. The field is so large that it is exceedingly difficult to know where or how to begin. It can not begin to help everywhere at once. It will have at its disposal about \$40,000 a year for the next two years, beginning January 1. It desires the sympathy and support especially of the teaching profession, and wherever any work has been projected, so far it is meeting with cordial cooperation.

Doubtless the friendly relations established by the Southern Educational Conference between thinking citizens of the north and thinking citizens of the south will result in the future in much good to the south outside the specific work of this campaign committee, but that is not a matter for the immediate consideration of the Southern Education Board or its campaign committee.

At the conclusion of President McIver's statement, Prof. Thach, of

Auburn, Ala., spoke of some good results from the organization of this board in his state and offered the following resolution, which was adopted by a rising vote:

RESOLUTION IN REGARD TO THE CONFERENCE FOR EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

The Southern Educational Association in convention assembled at Columbia, S. C., December 27, 1901, hereby expresses its sense of cordial appreciation and hearty approval of the movement made for the benefit of education in the south under the auspices of that body of philanthropists, educators, and citizens of the north and the south, known as the Conference for Education in the South.

Mrs. Eva R. Bain, of the Industrial School at Columbus, Ga., was introduced and made a statement at some length in regard to the work of the conference, highly commending it.

Dr. Phillips, chairman, submitted the report of the Committee on Resolutions.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Resolved, 1st. That the unqualified thanks of this association are eminently due and are hereby most heartily tendered to the educational representatives and to the people and municipal authorities of the city of Columbia for the cordial and hospitable greeting extended to this Association; and also for the admirable facilities and conveniences provided for its general and departmental sessions, and which have made its proceedings so exceptionally pleasant in all of its departments.

Resolved, 2nd. That the Southern Educational Association deplores the employment in our mines, mills and factories of children of immature age, and urge the immediate enactment of such state legislation as shall place just and humane restrictions upon child labor in mines and manufacturing establishments of the southern states.

Resolved, 3rd. That we express our high appreciation of the great services to the cause of education given by the present United States commissioner of education, and the work of the national bureau of education.

Resolved, 4th. That the Southern Educational Association expresses by this utterance to Mr. Andrew Carnegie its great appreciation of his patriotic offer to advance higher education and research by a foundation at the national capital and its earnest belief that by making his generous gift the endowment of a national university for graduate work only he will most efficiently give stimulus and advancement to all educational effort throughout the country.

These resolutions were adopted as read.

INVITATIONS

President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Tennessee, presented an invitation from the authorities of the city of Knoxville for the Association to hold its next meeting in that city.

Superintendent Thos. N. Colton presented a similar invitation from the city of San Antonio, Texas.

EVENING SESSION

Columbia Theatre—Saturday, December 28, 7:30 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by President Glenn.

Superintendent J. H. Phillips, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, reported the following Declaration of Principles, which was unanimously adopted:

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES

The Southern Educational Association affirms its unswerving faith in the principles of universal education as the basis of human progress and the means to the moral eleva-

tion of man. It declares its conviction in the power of educated public sentiment to develop efficient social and civic agencies; in the need of popular appreciation of the economic and moral benefits of the school and in the duty and responsibility of the state in providing adequate facilities for the education of all its citizens.

We emphasize the need of ample preparation of the teachers in our common schools; we demand the recognition by law of properly qualified supervisors and better facilities for the work of rural schools in the way of buildings and equipment.

We recognize the pressing need of more money for the schools. Without this fundamental condition no progress or improvement is possible. We earnestly hope that state aid to education will be largely supplemented by local taxation and we call upon the various county as well as state authorities to urge the necessity of this important legislation.

The condition of the rural schools demands the attention of educators generally throughout the country. We consider the rural child as worthy of consideration as the city child, and in the upbuilding of the rural schools we see a means of keeping the people on the farm, improving the methods of agriculture and beautifying the home life of the people. We believe it is wise to have large central schools in rural districts, rather than the isolated single room schools, seeing by that means a way of grading rural schools, founding libraries, lectures and industrial training. To further this end we give our approval of the consolidation of rural schools, transporting pupils in proper conveyances wherever necessary and possible.

We cordially approve kindergarten schools for the children in the southern states, especially those where home opportunities do not lead them to appreciate the higher and better forms of life. We believe that kindergarten schools should be encouraged by all educators either as separate, private enterprises, or as a part of the public school system, believing thereby that the principles of true living will be early instilled into the child's mind.

We recognize generally throughout the south the encouragement given by the states to the elementary education of the child and to the cause of higher culture as well as technical and normal education. We suffer, however, from a lack of coherency in the entire scheme by the omission of state encouragement to the secondary or high school education, especially for the rural districts, and we earnestly recommend that the high schools be recognized and incorporated as a part of the public school system of each State.

As the industrial progress and prosperity of a people are forerunners of all forms of intellectual, moral and social advancement, we are heartily in sympathy with all efforts to make education more practical by the introduction of manual training, including domestic science, into the course of study and the establishment of agricultural and technical schools.

We affirm that wholesome respect for the established customs and laws of the people constitutes a basic principle in their upward course, and we greatly deprecate any infringement on this ideal condition of progress. We believe that the advancement of the cause of education is the greatest safeguard that can be thrown around a people, bringing with it a higher regard for the law of the land, respect for the rights of property and a higher sense of the sacredness of human life, thereby securing for all our people the blessings of a prosperous, peaceful and useful life.

Dr. J. H. Penniman, Dean of the University of Pennsylvania, addressed the Association on "Light on the Old Testament from the University of Pennsylvania's Excavations at Nippur."

At the close of this address the meeting adjourned.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

Columbia Theatre—Sunday, December 29, 4 P. M.

In the absence of the President and Vice-President, the meeting was called to order by Dr. R. P. Pell.

Dr. J. H. Penniman delivered an address on "The Literary Study of the Bible."

The Association then adjourned.

EVENING SESSION

Columbia Theatre—Sunday, December 29, 8 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by Dr. R. P. Pell.

Dr. Alexander L. Phillips, Secretary of Sabbath Schools of the Southern Presbyterian Church, addressed the meeting on "The Pedagogical Treatment of the Bible."

Professor P. P. Claxton discussed the subject, giving an outline of the work done in the Sunday School of the West Market Street Church, Greensboro, N. C.

The Eleventh Annual Convention of the Southern Educational Association then adjourned.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Secretary Southern Educational Association.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

W. A. CLARK, CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Southern Educational Association:

Some one has said: "Of all the blessings which it has pleased Providence to allow us to cultivate there is not one which breathes a purer fragrance or bears a heavenlier aspect than education. It is a companion which no misfortune can depress, no crime destroy, no enemy alienate, no despotism enslave; at home a friend, abroad an introduction, in solitude a solace, in society an ornament; it chastens vice, it guides virtue; it gives at once a grace and government to genius. Without it what is man? A splendid slave, a reasoning savage, vascillating between the dignity of an intelligence divided from God and degradation of passions participated in by brutes, and in the accident of their alternate ascendancy shuddering at the terrors of an hereafter, or hugging the horrid hope of annihilation."

Education is at this time a popular theme, possibly the most popular that engages our attention.

In its entire range from the lowest grade up to the highest—from the kindergarten and common school on up to the college and university it has arrested the attention and commands the thought of the politician, the statesman, the philanthropist and the student.

It has become the object of the most liberal benefaction, both public and private.

The doors of the public treasury are thrown wide open when the intellectual wants of the people become the subject of legislative consideration. To the philanthropist no cause appeals with greater power nor receives more liberal support.

The importance, nay the necessity, of the education of the people has passed the realm of legislative debate. It is now regarded not only as a duty of a Christian people; but as for the good of the empire and as necessary for the perpetuity of the republic.

The only question which now seems open for debate is how much shall we do? To what extent shall we go in the direction of popular education?

The development of the past few years and the princely fortunes which of very recent date have been devoted to this end would seem to indicate that the limit has not been reached.

Nor does it seem as though enthusiasm is confined altogether to the law-makers and benefactors of this most worthy object. It is not alone to them the beneficiaries are indebted. By no means; but to those also unto whom have been committed the duty of executing this great trust is there due a large debt of gratitude.

To the great multitude of men and women who have devoted their lives to this work and who adorn that noble profession the people have been brought largely in debt.

In season and out of season they have displayed a zeal worthy of the vocation whereunto they have been called.

It really seems as if the desire to acquire knowledge so as the better to discharge the trust committed unto them is commensurate only with the large demands made upon them.

The convention you now celebrate is but one of the many evidences you have displayed of your willingness to sacrifice self to the good of your profession and thereby to elevate it and benefit those in whose behalf you labor.

We therefore welcome you and esteem it a privilege to own you as our guests.

I therefore in behalf of this people do now extend to you a most cordial welcome. We trust that you will here find much to confirm you in the choice you have made in selecting this place as that for holding your eleventh annual convention.

Were you to allow yourselves the time to study its history you would certainly not be disappointed.

True it is that we have passed under the sword and through the fire; but phoenix-like we have risen from our ashes and are again taking rank as an educational centre.

You will pardon me as I pass briefly in review those educational institutions which have been here nurtured; and the efforts which have been made by this people to the end that this city become the centre of education.

At an early day in the history of this city the South Carolina College was established, and as you well know for more than a half century along with the University of Virginia occupied the fore-

most place among the educational institutions of the South. Its first president was Jonathan Maxey. He was a remarkable man. At the age of 15 he entered Brown University, and graduated at 19 with highest honors. He was at once elected tutor in that institution, which position he held for four years. Upon the death of President Manning he was elected President at the age of 24, which position he held with distinction until at the age of 34 he was called to become President of Union College as the successor of that distinguished man, Jonathan Edwards. Two years later he was elected President of the South Carolina college and in 1804 assumed the arduous duty of organizing that college and remained its President and successful founder until his death in 1820.

Dr. LaBorde in his history of the South Carolina College says of this remarkable man: "The reader will call to mind that he has been the prominent personage in my historical narrative from the year of his election to the period of his death. He has been the principal actor. The history of the college therefore is so interwoven with his own personal history that they can not be separated. I have therefore been compelled to speak of him on almost every page; to declare to a considerable extent the nature of his labors and the value of his varied services. I shall not repeat the story here; the college is his monument and his name is inscribed on every page of its history—as a teacher he was never surpassed."

In speaking of his death the writer says: "But little now remains to be said. Professor, students and trustees have now laid the richest offering upon his tomb. The halls of learning, the sacred desk shall know him no longer.

"But his mission was accomplished, the college was established; and a common fame is to unite them in all time to come. He was to give way to others. Whatever the success of those who were to follow; whatever the amount of genius, and learning and service, he was securely enshrined in the hearts of the state, and was to enjoy the proud distinction of being, under God, the great pioneer in the noble work of diffusing blessings of education among her people."

Another great man who served the college as President was Dr. Jas. H. Thornwell. He was a genius; an intellectual giant.

He entered college at the age of 17, and graduated at 19 with highest honors.

At 25 he was elected professor of logic and metaphysics; and at 39 elected president.

His reputation as a divine and theologian was international.

Dr. LaBorde in his history of the South Carolina College says of him: "As a teacher few if any have equaled, certainly none have surpassed him." As a logician, "who can resist the power of his logic, and who can extricate himself from his meshes when he becomes entangled in them? Whether it be the science or the art of reasoning or both, or whether it be the science which treats of laws of thought rather than of the laws of reasoning; whether it be purely deductive or may be identified with the inductive; no matter how these questions may be determined, Dr. Thornwell is entitled to the proud distinction of being the logician in our midst.

"As philosopher, I would not detract in the least from the measure of praise so justly due his distinguished predecessor in this branch of instruction; but I can not doubt that in metaphysical genius and learning he never had his equal in college.

"As President, I have long since come to the conclusion that he united more of the qualities which give fitness for the high office than any one who has filled it; and abating none of my admiration of the distinguished men who preceded him, and holding them in grateful remembrance for their valuable services, still I must present him as the model president, '*primus inter pares*.'"

Among the presidents of the South Carolina College may be mentioned many very distinguished and learned men; but the two of whom I have just spoken, may, without making any invidious comparison, be said to be the most distinguished.

She was favored with a list of worthies amongst her staff of professors.

And here again without fear of offending any I may mention as entitled to highest distinction Lieber, the father of political science; LaBorde, the man of letters; Preston, the orator and rhetorician; Henry, the scholar; Venable, the mathematician; John LaConte, James Woodrow and Jos. LeConte. The three last all distinguished in the world of science.

With such a corps of teachers it is not to be wondered at that her impression upon the state has been so marked. Among her alumni we number our most distinguished men; and that unity of sentiment which characterizes our people may be mentioned as one of the prominent features of her noble work.

She was at the zenith of her glory when her doors were closed by war. She has survived the shock of that terrible conflict; and though her career since that time has not been free of trial and

perplexities still she survives and is now rendering good service in the education of our men.

We would mention also the Theological Seminary of the Synod of South Carolina and Georgia as another institution of learning which added lustre to this city. She celebrated her semi-centennial many years ago. Like the South Carolina College her teachers and professors enjoyed a great reputation for learning; and so she ranked high among the schools of the prophets. Time will not admit of my giving any detailed account of her work. She has given to the church many distinguished theologians of whom I may mention without disparagement of others, Thornwell, Palmer, Girardeau and Boggs, all profound theologians and great preachers.

Contemporaneous with these two institutions of which mention has been made there were located at Columbia two institutions of learning for the education of women, the Methodist Female College and the Barhamville Female College; both institutions of note and wide reputation.

Located here also was one branch of the State Military Academy and the Columbia Academy, a high school for preparing young men for college.

These six institutions with other schools of minor importance, were all in flourishing condition at the outbreak of the war and constituted Columbia the educational centre of the state.

The Barhamville School and the State Military Academy were destroyed at the time Columbia was burned and have never been rebuilt. All of the others survived the fate of war and are now again in a prosperous and flourishing condition.

To this number has been added since the war the Presbyterian College for Women, a college of high standing which now ranks among the very best in the South.

There have also been added two colleges for the education of the colored race; a high school for the preparation of men and women for college and a graded school system of an high order.

And now, while in late years the state has established in the northwestern part of the state the Clemson College for training young men in the industrial arts and sciences; and Winthrop Normal and Industrial College at Rock Hill for the training of young ladies; we still claim for Columbia with her leading state institutions for the training of men; her divinity school; her two colleges for women; her two colleges for the colored people; her high

school and her graded schools, that she remains the educational centre of the state. And I make bold to venture the assertion that no city in the South can claim more. It would therefore seem as if your choice was well made.

May we, therefore, hope that your meeting with us will not be in vain ; but prove to the mutual profit and pleasure of all ; that your anticipation will be fully realized ; and that you will find here not only hospitable homes but schools of learning of which none need be ashamed.

And now again we welcome you to our midst ; and on behalf of those for whom I have the honor to speak I wish you all a pleasant meeting, a profitable communion with each other ; an intellectual feast of fat things and after all a safe return to your happy homes and loved ones.

ADDRESSES

EDUCATIONAL STATESMANSHIP

PRESIDENT CHARLES D. MCIVER, NORTH CAROLINA STATE NORMAL
AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE

There has never been a time in its history, calling for bold, strong leadership, that the southern section of the United States has not produced leaders equal to the emergency. In peace and in war, in prosperity and in poverty, it has furnished to history statesmen and warriors of the types of Washington, Jefferson, Macon, Jackson, Calhoun, Stephens, Davis, Lee, Stonewall Jackson, Hill, Vance and Lamar. The leadership of these men has been largely in the field of politics and in the field of war. To be sure they all accomplished much outside their distinctive fields; and the South has never been long without successful leadership in agriculture, at the bar, and in the pulpit.

It has not, however, in all these years, produced a group of educational leaders among its great men in high public place. Naturally this struggling democracy, making its great experiment in a new world, gave its first attention to war, politics, agriculture and commerce. But now the Revolutionary war is a century from us, and the Indian no longer calls us to battle; the war between the states is to most of us only a glorious story of fierce struggle and heroic bravery on the part of our fathers and grandfathers; the South has gone through its forty years' wilderness of poverty with unbroken spirit, and is now in sight of the promised land of prosperous material independence such as it enjoyed in the decade from 1850 to 1860. May we not hope that such a time and emergency as the present will call forth great leaders who shall live in history, not merely as successful politicians or military leaders, but as educational statesmen?

The next ten years will witness the development of a group of men who will go upon the hustings and fight out for our children the real battle of liberty and independence. This battle can be won only by a revolution in popular thought, resulting in a recog-

dition of the paramount importance of securing for every child in the South a thorough public school education.

This group of statesmen will preach with all the fervor of a crusader the doctrine which school teachers have believed in for many years, and from time to time have timidly tried to impress upon the public mind and heart. Sometimes we may have been impatient; sometimes we have, in our zeal, forgotten perhaps the importance of other questions that were urgent; sometimes we may have impugned the motives of men who, though blind, were honest in their failure to see what we knew to be the great fundamental remedy for many of the evils that they were attempting to correct by temporary make-shifts.

Now, however, we are nearing the time when a man can make more votes on the stump by advocating the improvement of the public school system than he can by advocating the destruction of the internal revenue system or the increase or decrease of the tariff tax. Heretofore we have often heard that "We are too poor to support a good system of public education." Hereafter we shall hear in ringing tones, "We are too poor not to support such a system." In the past, we have sometimes heard people speak of the public schools as schools for the poor. Hereafter, in the days soon to come, a man will no more speak of the public schools as schools for the poor than he would speak of the capitol building or the postoffice, or the public roads as institutions for the poor. We have frequently heard men speak of the funds for public schools as charity funds. The early future will christen these funds as the best investment that a free people can make. The day has been when education was advocated as a necessity only for the cultured and leisure class, as if education were an ornament or a play-thing for the idle or a means of escaping labor. The new group of statesmen will tell us that education is not a means of escaping labor, but a means of making labor more effective, and that it is a universal necessity.

We have heard in ancient days that it is robbery to tax Brown's property to educate Jones' children. In the future no one will question the right of the state to tax the property of Brown and Jones to develop the state through its children. We and our fathers have too often thought of a state as a piece of land with mineral resources, forests, water courses and certain climatic conditions. The future will recognize that people—not trees and rocks and rivers and imaginary boundary lines—make a state, and

that the state is great, intelligent, wealthy and powerful, or is small, ignorant, poverty-stricken and weak, just in proportion as its people are educated, or as they are untrained and raw, like the natural material about them. It has been too common a political teaching that the best government is that which levies the smallest taxes. The future will modify that doctrine and teach that liberal taxation, fairly levied and properly applied, is the chief mark of a civilized people. The savage pays no tax.

Two ideas—individual liberty and opposition to taxation—have dominated our life. There has been no politics where one or both of these ideas in some form have not been all controlling. The former idea, be it said to our credit, has been dominant over the latter. For in no case have the masses of Southern people seemed to pay taxes gladly except when they thought liberty was at stake, in which case they have been joyfully lavish in expenditures.

The primitive notion is that any tax is an abridgment of liberty, and so in a sense, it is, but it is a fixed doctrine of political economy that not without taxation can there exist the larger and better liberty of mankind.

In the very recent past a great cry of distress went up throughout the United States in behalf of an island with a area and population about the same as the area and population of North Carolina. Moreover, this population, like that of North Carolina, was one-third black. "Let's go free Cuba," was the battle cry, and from every state, and notably from these liberty-loving Southern states, volunteers swarmed to join the army and navy. For the purpose of fitting up the boats with paint and flags to get ready to fight for the freedom of Cuba, \$50,000,000, an average of more than a million to a state, was appropriated by Congress. Because this tax is collected, or is to be collected, indirectly, a cry of joy went up with the privilege of paying it, notwithstanding the fact that any Southern state's part of it is more than its school fund for a year. How many millions of dollars have been appropriated similarly in the same cause, since the first \$50,000,000 was appropriated I am unable to tell. It is safe to say, however, that the indirect tax to be paid by each Southern state because of this war is far greater than its aggregate school fund for the past ten years. Besides appropriating the tax cheerfully, the states vied with each other to be the first to offer their sacrifices of men on the battle field.

In these same years a few teachers have undertaken to teach the people that in their own midst are hundreds of thousands of little children, who, under our present educational conditions, are doomed to the tyranny of ignorance and weakness and poverty. We have looked our fellow citizens in the face and begged them to vote a small tax on themselves to free their own children. We have not asked them to double their public school fund in one year, but have plead for a small increase. In the majority of cases the answer has come back to us, "We are too poor, and the people are in no mood for increasing their taxes." Others have said, "You unpractical school teachers are not safe leaders. Go back and teach your schools. We do not censure you severely, because you are trying to increase the fund from which you get your salaries, but you do not know what you are talking about. We have neither time nor money to waste on your schemes. We must free Cuba."

The subject of the wisdom or unwisdom of the Spanish war is not a matter for discussion here, and the subject is introduced only to illustrate the truth that the people always find money to spend for what they believe to be a supreme necessity. The educational statesman of the near future will proclaim that it is better for a people to spend a few hundred thousand dollars in educating their own children and freeing them from the thralldom of ignorance and inefficiency than it is to spend millions to free the inhabitants of an island in the sea. He will teach that no community has ever become poor because of large taxes locally applied, but that any community must become poor when paying even a small tax constantly applied to a foreign field, and practically none of it applied to improving home conditions. He will teach that a dollar applied to the improvement of our own and our neighbors' children is a more patriotic dollar than a dollar applied to free the people of any foreign country. He will teach incidentally that a negro in Cuba is not a worthier object of patriotism or public expenditure than a negro in North Carolina.

We have heard in the past how necessary universities and colleges are, in order that men may be trained for leadership in society. These new statesmen will teach that the citizenship of the state is composed not only of men, but of women and children. They will teach that woman is the fountain-head of civilization, and that what she teaches to children is more important than all that is taught to them in high schools, colleges and univer-

sities. They will call attention to the fact that, while there are one million more men in the United States than women, yet the excess of female illiterates over male illiterates is 300,000, and that the Southern states furnish 250,000 of this excess. They will teach that the Southern white woman in the country fixes the ideals of the home and sets the pace of our civilization, and there are 100,000 more illiterate white women in the South than there are illiterate white men. They will teach that the education of a man means the education of a citizen, whereas the education of a woman means the education of a citizen, and generally a guarantee of an educated family in the next generation. They will see and make the people see that, whereas, there are numerous colleges and universities with liberal endowment for the education of white men, negro men and negro women, there is not in all the South, with possibly one exception, a liberally endowed college for women and that, until recently, there have been no women's colleges receiving annual appropriations from the state. They will teach that if education and the removal of illiteracy be the chief problem of this generation, rather than a struggle over tariff questions and money standards, then the most liberal public and private policy in regard to the education of girls and women is demanded. They will teach that this is true not for sentimental reasons, nor because women are essentially better than men or deserve more from the government, but because the most important part of the state's population is its children, and women are nearer to the life of children than men are, and determine their future by the atmosphere they create for them in the home and in the primary school.

You have heard frequently that education is not good for the negro, and that when you educate one of them, you spoil a field hand. The coming statesman will teach that the proper kind of education hurts no one, and that if it pays to train a dog, a horse and all other animals that walk on the face of the earth, the negro is not the only exception in the animal kingdom. He will also teach that, in our civilization, a field hand is a burden oftener than a support; that a field hand is a man whose head is of so little consequence that he is all hand. You must do his thinking for him. You must direct him from daylight to dark, and then the product of his labor, with all your direction and care, when placed upon the markets of the world, is worth about twenty-five cents a day, and out of that small product must come compensation for your pains and the dividend on your investment. This new type of statesman

will teach that it is better to cultivate a garden at a net profit of ten dollars than to cultivate a field at a net loss of ten dollars. He will teach that it would be a good thing for this country if we could convert half of our field hands into artisans, who could erect our buildings and convert our raw material into more profitable products. Moreover, he will teach that no community can afford to doom its own white children to mental starvation because of unwillingness to provide even a scant supply of intellectual food for the negro children dwelling among them.

He will teach that the white race is the thoroughbred among races and stands among inferior races as the thoroughbred animal stands among scrubs. At the same time he will teach that if you feed the thoroughbred and scrub on poor diet, the scrub will suffer less than the thoroughbred; that only when there is a liberal provision of food and care will the thoroughbred's blood fully assert itself; and that similarly on a starvation educational diet an inferior race has a comparative advantage, while on a liberal educational diet the advantage is with the superior race.

Above all things, this new group of statesmen will teach that the education of children is greater than the waging of war, or the prosecution of politics; that the school teacher is the most important agent of human society; that he is the seed corn of civilization, and that none but the best and strongest is fit to be used.

How shall the coming of this day of educational statesmanship be hastened? The inauguration of a movement for the betterment of conditions in any field of human activity must be made primarily by the laborers in that field. Physicians have not expected lawyers to lead in matters of sanitation; lawyers have not depended upon farmers for judicial legislation; farmers have not bettered their condition except where the representatives of their calling are able to lead or teach others to lead. No more can we expect great educational advance movements except under the leadership of teachers or leaders who have been instructed and inspired by teachers. We must lead our own movements so far as we can, and, in addition, we must often furnish a brief of fact and argument to those in high political place for a quicker and more influential leadership. The school teacher can educate public sentiment to see the truth in regard to public education, so that it will be impossible for those who are indifferent and hostile to the cause to be elected to positions of honor and power. It is worth a great deal to a county to have a sheriff or a judge, or a county commissioner who is, in

time of need, a fighting friend for the cause of public education. When the masses of the people, educated and uneducated, are brought to the realization of the highest interests of themselves and their children, they will not be slow to develop political educational leaders from their own ranks.

The most important officers in the South today are the State Superintendents of Public Instruction and the county superintendents. Unfortunately the salaries of our State Superintendents and their allowance for traveling expenses are not sufficient to secure the most effective service. It is of more importance to any state in the South to have a State Superintendent of towering ability than to have a Governor or a Congressman of towering ability. In most of the Southern states we pay our State Superintendent of Public Instruction a salary of from \$1,500 to \$2,000. We pay our Governors from \$3,000 to \$5,000. Congressmen are paid \$5,000. In spite of this some State Superintendents are superior in point of ability and efficiency to some Governors. Yet it is not to be supposed that the majority of the strongest, most efficient and most ambitious men, however patriotic they may be, and however important the field may be, will choose for public service that field which offers the least reward.

Every efficient State Superintendent in the South knows that, under the present condition, his particular work is in the field and not in his office; yet many of the best Superintendents are handicapped because they can not remain in the field and labor where labor is most needed, unless they are willing to do so at their own expense out of their meagre salaries. It is exceedingly poor economy on the part of the state to limit, by inadequate provision for necessary traveling expenses, the State Superintendent's work.

But let us now direct our attention to the county superintendent. He ought to be the liveliest man and the most influential leader among his people. This is exactly what a few county superintendents are, but such men are very rare, and it is no wonder they are rare. Nothing is so indicative of the low ebb of public education as the pitiable price we are willing to pay for the services of the county superintendent. The securing of a competent and capable man for this great work is almost an accident and is of rare occurrence.

The city superintendent of schools, while not paid extravagantly, still is able to support his family, and, in addition, spend a small amount of money each year gaining general and professional

culture. As a rule, an ambitious county superintendent with a family can not live on the salary of his position. And yet public thought needs to be stimulated most just where this man touches the life of the people. His work, more than any other public work in his community, needs a man of great power, tact and energy. He should be a man who can win the confidence of the intelligent, lead the ignorant and illiterate and give hope and inspiration to plodding men of mediocre ability and position. In an argument on general questions, he should be able to hold his own with the strongest professional or commercial men he may chance to meet; and in the discussion of educational questions he should be more than a match for them. He ought not to be a mere examiner of teachers or a gatherer of statistics. A few clerks in the office of the State Superintendents could send out all the written examinations necessary, and pass upon the examination papers. The chief work of the local superintendents now should be to show the county commissioners and "the powers that be" in politics and business what the educational necessities of his county are, and how these necessities can be supplied, and he ought to be able to help secure proper support from the people.

We all know that the fundamental necessity is more money for the public schools. A cheap-John business will always mean cheap-John management, and the output will be cheap-John products. It is ancient and current history that as soon as a community votes a liberal tax for public education, leading men in that community who previously ignored or openly expressed contempt for public education, begin a race to secure the privilege of serving on the school board. Suddenly there develops the ambition to have the best superintendent who can be employed regardless of where he comes from and often regardless of expense. So it will be everywhere when each rural community of the South decides to do what nearly every town and city of the South has already done, and votes a liberal tax for the schools.

Local taxation for public schools is our paramount issue. We can not hope, however, for an early general adoption of local taxation with our present system of employing county superintendents, most of whom must, in the nature of the case, spend a large part of their time to make their living in some other calling, giving only a small portion of it to educational work. At present the school fund is not large, and probably it is not practicable to increase materially the compensation of the county superintendents. If

this be true, the only possible remedy is to combine two or three counties into one district, and instead of having two or three six or eight hundred dollar men, one for each county, have one eighteen hundred or twenty-four hundred dollar man who will give one-third of himself to each of the three counties. It will be better to have one-third of a two or three thousand dollar man in any county than to have all of a seven or eight hundred dollar man. These men might be called division superintendents or deputy state superintendents. Their salaries would amount to no more than we pay for our present system of supervision. We would, perhaps, lose a little in local management, but we would gain at the great and all-important point of having a master of his business and a capable, inspiring leader of public thought representing in every county, every year the cause of public education. If each county could be induced to have such a man, so much the better. What is needed is wise, tactful, aggressive, local agitation by the man who knows the truth and who can speak it and write it effectively. Such a man can not be had unless the public is willing to give sufficient compensation to enable him to prosecute the work, and at the same time to make a living in that work. A superintendent of this kind would be able to train teachers in institutes, guide officials in their work, and by writing and speaking, influence the thought of the people on all educational matters. He would so educate the public that the day of the educational statesman would not long be delayed.

Our profession would furnish some of these educational statesmen. Some of them would be found among the very men spoken of as division superintendents or deputy state superintendents. But wherever the leaders might come from, whether from among lawyers, preachers, doctors, farmers, or teachers themselves, the South would be benefited by its new leadership. Instead of a constant fighting merely for securing and holding political place or contending about the merits of a question a thousand miles away, there would be inaugurated the greatest system of internal improvement and home development that this country has ever seen.

We are representatives and teachers of this great Southern people, a nobly sentimental people, willing to pay taxes without limit, and glad to go any day to the ends of the earth to fight the battles of their fellow-men, struggling for liberty. Let us as educators give our lives, if need be, to teach this people the fundamental truth that liberty, like charity, ought to begin at home, and

that the tyranny of a government over its subjects is not so great or so dangerous as the self-inflicted tyranny of ignorance, inefficiency and poverty.

The appeal of this hour is for real teachers and for real statesmen. Shall the appeal come to us in vain?

MISSION OF THE RURAL SCHOOL

SUPERINTENDENT LAWTON B. EVANS, AUGUSTA, GA.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

I need not dwell long upon the fact that most people live in the rural districts, and that they are the most important part of our population. I do not need to impress the fact that the drift of population is from the farm and to the cities. This is not as it should be, for a nation is most prosperous, when its people are making wealth out of the soil.

Among the reasons that induce people to move to town is the insufficiency of the schools in the country, their lack of adjustment to the ulterior needs of the population, and the lack of interest they stimulate among the children. There is a necessity then for studying this problem in order that the rural schools may perform their part in keeping the people in the country, teaching them what they best should know, and stimulating them to that enjoyment of life without which all labor is mere toil and home is only a place in which to eat and sleep.

The city schools of America are already excellent. Money, talent and cooperation have made them as good as any in the world. We have exerted ourselves in the perfecting of our city schools until everything is taught to everybody with the most approved appliances. We have almost forgotten the child of the field, in our anxiety for the child of the boulevard.

The rural schools are laboring under very serious misfortunes, growing out of indifference on the part of the farmers to the question of education and a misapprehension of its necessity. Let me state plainly these misfortunes.

1. Any kind of teacher will do for the country schools. If a girl wants experience or a trousseau she is to get it out of a country school. If a young man is not competent for a city principalship he seeks and secures a place in the country. This is an im-

position on the country people that they have not resented. City people would not tolerate it.

2. Any kind of book will do for a country school. The teacher is forced to be content with any reader, any speller, any arithmetic, just so it is a book. The parents say, "I used Webster's Blue Back, and what was good for me will do for my child." This is an imposition on the teacher and on the child that the country should not allow.

3. Any kind of house will do for a country school—an old church, big, cold and cheerless—an old dwelling abandoned by everybody as uninhabitable—in fact any sort of building with four walls and a roof will do to teach country children in.

The sad fact stares us in the face that our ordinary country school houses are inartistic in architecture, bare of decoration in the interior, uncared for, unattractive and often immodest in the yard and grounds. The school house is generally set upon the highway, on a half acre lot, on ground that is hardly fit for anything else, the trees cut down in order to admit light and the stumps left standing on account of laziness, outhouses exposed to full view, no definite place for playground, no receptacle for waste paper, and not a flower or shrub to relieve the blankness and barrenness of prospect. The censure falls justly that our school houses are not the things of beauty whose remembrance will bring a joy forever.

The general custom throughout the South in locating rural schools is to have as many of them as possible, in order to avoid long walks for the people and to provide every community with a school. This causes several evils.

1. Small schools are ungraded schools. One teacher will have thirty or forty pupils, representing all degrees of advancement from the first reader to algebra and the number of recitations he will hear daily is something marvelous.

2. Small schools are poorly supervised. The reason of this is the distance the supervisor has to travel in order to reach each teacher. A great deal more time is spent on the road than is spent in the school room. The supervisor is tired when he reaches the school house and his visits are short and generally of little value.

3. Small schools lack system. Generally the ungraded single country school is conducted as the old time private school. Any way to come in and any way to go out, no particular discipline, children sit anywhere and do pretty much as they please.

4. Small schools lack vitality. There is a dullness, a shrinking, a deadness about most country school work that is discouraging to superintendents. If a child is called on he is generally so scared that he cries, or else answers wildly, with tremulous lips, while the others titter and the teacher apologizes.

City schools do not do so. We do not find eight or ten separate little school rooms, one on each block in a city ward, in which all the children of that block are gathered, regardless of grade. We find, instead, one large and well equipped building of ten rooms, and the children graded according to their ability. It is an established proposition that graded schools are better than single, isolated, ungraded schools. This is one reason why city schools do better work in a more advanced way than rural schools. Let us consider some principles.

Man is a gregarious animal. He likes company, and he likes to appear well in company. He wants his neighbors to think well of him. Therefore, he builds fine houses, lays out fine yards, wears fine clothes, not really because he enjoys them, but more because he wants his neighbors to admire and envy him. Why is it that a farmer will work on his farm all the week, unshaven and coatless, even at meals, but on Sunday, when he goes to church, will be shaven and in his "other clothes?" It is not the sanctuary that he reverences, but the people and their opinion of him.

This fact, peculiar to man, has stimulated all the arts of civilization. Architecture, art, fashion, luxury in every form, are the expressions of one man trying to outdo his neighbor. The result is that cities are the centres of highest art and civilization. Man vies with man more continuously there than in rural districts. Also, the larger the city the more exaggerated the manifestations. Paris, New York, London set the fashions, control the markets, and congest the currency. It seems indeed that rural life exists but to feed and clothe city life.

Isolation is a denial of all man's instincts and habits. He drifts into the inert, the careless and the crude. The hayseed is as natural a product of isolation as Beau Brummel is of the Mall. Therefore what the rural population needs to make life more endurable, civilization more pronounced, and happiness more certain, is company—plenty of it, and of the right sort. To get this association two things are necessary, first a community of farmers, say a dozen families, living close together in a settlement, and not all of them on their farm lands. It is not any more necessary for a

man to live on his farm than it is for him to live over his store. He should be on his farm by daybreak, may be; but his family is entitled to a community life.

The second principle is man's necessity for a central point of interest. Anciently this was the chief or headman's tent, then the baronial castle, then the squire's house, then in later times the church, the court house, etc. The time has come when the rural people must look to the rural school as the centre of their social and intellectual life. They need a meeting place, a place of interest, where the people may come together and enjoy seeing each other and talking and listening to each other. The public school is such a place. No other place exists.

Therefore, I raise my protest against the building of one-room country school houses, to accommodate fifteen or twenty children in the radius of a mile or two. Such a place can not be a centre of interest. A rural school house should reach out in a radius of five miles, should embosom a hundred or more children, should have four rooms, under four teachers, each teacher teaching two years of work properly graded. The building should in all cases be provided with an assembly hall or lecture room.

The problem before us in the South is mainly one of distance. Few rural communities have a hundred children in walking distance of a school. What then? The answer is *transport them in covered wagons*. It is cheaper to pay for the transportation than it is to organize and maintain individual schools. Our ideal school should be located in the centre of an area that has a radius of five miles. Surely such an area can afford more than enough pupils to organize a graded school. Four stage lines should be arranged, coming from the four parts of the compass. These stages should consist of covered wagons holding twenty or more pupils each, let out by contract to reputable persons, who start at designated points and take up the pupils who walk out to the highways. Some pupils can walk. In fact half of them can. Permits to use the wagon should be granted according to residence and age.

It is safe to say that four teachers in a graded school can do the work that six do in ungraded schools. The saving in two teachers will go to pay for the cost of transportation. In other words four teachers and cost of transportation of one hundred pupils can be made the same as the cost of six teachers and better work can be done.

As a result the community gets a school house that is a pride

and ornament, that is the centre of intellectual and social life for young and old. The pupils get the advantage of large numbers, which stimulate and inspire, and of graded rooms, which insure the best quality of school work.

The school house should be on the public highway, in full view of passers-by. It should be on an elevation in or near or by a grove, have flowers, shrubbery, walks, etc., for decoration, and should in every way contribute to the pride and delight of the people of the district.

Let us see what such a school could afford.

In the first place a library, open during school hours. The principal of the school could act as librarian. Every man who patronizes the school, every child enrolled in the school, becomes *ipso facto* a member of the library. A hundred books would make the beginning of an excellent rural school library. Books of fiction, travel, poetry, history, a few sensible books on rural life, any good books that people want to read, will make up the list. Do not admit to the shelves a single useless book. Let every book be desirable, readable and one for which there is a real demand. To get up a library means a good deal of begging, some pay entertainments, voluntary contributions by friends, etc.

Let me speak of magazines. For several years past I have had about fifty families in Augusta who have agreed to send me all their old magazines (Scribner's, Century, Harper's, etc.) as soon as they have been read and laid aside by the family. In this way I get about five hundred magazines a year. I have a book case in my office in which they are placed, and the country school teacher is welcome to a dozen of them every month. They are used in the school, and later, given to the older children to carry home and keep. In this way a real joy comes to many a home and heart that is eating itself out with the terrible monotony of isolated life. I have seen a package of old Christmas and Easter cards bring more joy to a backwoods home than I can ever hope to describe. Such a magazine club could be started for each rural school library.

In the second place, the rural school should enjoy a reasonable number of lectures. Why should all the good things be kept in town, such as concerts, lectures, magic lantern shows, etc? Why can not the country people have a Lyceum course as well as the town people? A magic lantern could be the property of the school. This could be paid for by the proceeds of the shows. Slides and lectures can be rented for \$1.50 to \$2.50 per lecture, and on every

conceivable subject. They are good, too; for I have tried them, and know whereof I write. Why not have some of the town people come out and talk or lecture on some good subject, not at all related to rural life? I feel sorry for country people, for they are always being lectured on "some subject relating to rural life." They are people as we are, and would rather hear of Japan or the deep sea than to hear of ensilage and pig swilling. Let us lift them out of their environment, and give them other thoughts. Let us remember they are men and women, and not merely farmers. The most appreciative audience I ever talked to was a country one, and my subject was "Louis Agassiz and the Alps Glaciers."

In the third place, social parties, dances, debating societies, musical clubs, sewing clubs, cooking schools, art and embroidery clubs, painting, China decorating, anything and everything in the nature of social, and educational work, is in proper form for the rural school house. It may be heresy to say so, but the country people need to be taught how to cook and how to sew, as much as how to read and write. The girls need music and embroidery as well as grammar. In fact, one real rural school house of the right kind, like a beacon on a hill, will illuminate the dark places, where people live who belong to God's plan as much as we do.

We have been much concerned in Georgia about the possibility of enriching the course of study of rural schools, in order to properly relate the studies of the children to their future occupation. To a certain extent it is true that an education should prepare a child for the probable work of his life. This need not supersede the larger fact of preparing him to be a man and a citizen in the general sense, but should rather accompany that fact.

If the course of study in rural schools is ever to be enriched by the introduction of those studies that are of vital interest to farm life it will be done after the present teaching force has been reformed and the present country book system has been greatly modified. Then we may hope for the following results:

1. The introduction of nature study in the rural schools. If any child needs to study nature more than another it is the child who is to get his living out of nature. If "Nature, the old nurse" loves one of her children more than another, it is the one that lives with her all the time, abides under her care and expects to draw his nurture from her faithful breast.

The nature study is to consist of the systematic study of plant life. "How plants grow" and "How plants feed" ought to be the

text book in the rural schools. Around each rural school should be a small protected garden, or a green house or a few hot beds to be cared for by the pupils. The theory of germination, of fertilization, of reproduction, the study of roots, stems, leaves, pods, seeds, can be made of intense interest. Insect life and bird life follow close on the heels of this, also the study of soils, rocks and pebbles. Nature lies at the door of a country school and begs to be admitted.

In selecting a course of reading for country schools, why not take nature readers? "Plants and their children," and many others of the same sort teach reading, and at the same time give practical knowledge of nature. So far as time goes, I am of the opinion that two hours a week of real intense nature study is sufficient, and that good results can be secured with that time. If any teacher says "I am not prepared to do this," then my answer is "get prepared or make way for some one who will." Provide yourself with certain books, such as Wilson's *Nature Studies*, for elementary schools; Jackman's *Nature Study*; Willet's *Wonders of Insect Life*; Gray's *How Plants Grow*; Newell's *Outlines of Botany*; and master them, and teach them a little at a time.

It is inexpressibly tiresome to see the eternal and unvarying monotony of the ordinary country schools. Not a colored drawing of anything of interest to a child, not a leaf nor a plant, nor a bud, nor a seed. Nothing but old and worn books and the dull saying of a, b, c's. I am prepared to say that the most monotonous, wearying life a child knows is that he spends in an ordinary country school. And it need not be.

The school gardens of Germany have become proverbial. They are not farms, but small patches of earth in which the simplest samples of vegetables and flowers grow. One specimen of each thing is enough for study. The soil, the moisture, the heat, are illustrated. Insects are studied. The growth from beginning to end is explained. Very many have the simplest forms of green houses for propagating small seeds. The government supplies the seeds. The farmers get the benefit of the growing plants. Incidentally the pupils get a great deal of instruction in botany and chemistry, both of which studies are among the essentials for a rural school course of study.

In fact I should promptly say that a reform is needed in our conception of a course of study for our country schools. We need to study less Latin and Algebra—less Geography and History—

less Grammar and Rhetoric—and we sadly need to study more business and agricultural arithmetic and bookkeeping—more hygiene and chemistry—more physics and forestry—more botany. We need to get closer down to the life of the farm.

Some time ago a family of five on a good farm were taken ill with typhoid fever, and two of them died. The doctor said the well was contaminated from the horse lot. The water should have been boiled before drinking, or the well abandoned. The poor father having lost his wife and daughter said, "I did not know that there was any danger. The well has been there for two generations. I wish some one had told me a year ago." A little science would have helped him along. He should have gotten it in school.

Let us insist upon the introduction of farm arithmetic and farm accounts into country schools. When a child is studying arithmetic let him learn to measure land, bins, wagons. Let him learn the cost of products, the value of markets. Is there not enough calculation for the farmer to do that the child should spend his time at plastering and carpeting, longitude and time, interest and bank discounts. Our teachers really forget the essential in problem giving, and dwell long and lovingly on partial payments, when they should be teaching measurements and bookkeeping. Farmers do not keep books because they do not know how, because they were never taught.

There should be a closer relation between the farmer and the school, between the parents and the teachers. A teacher in a country school ought to know something about farming, and ought to be in sympathy with farm life. I am not an advocate of sending city girls and boys out to teach in country schools, unless they know what they are sent there to do. I am an advocate of special preparation for teaching in the country schools.

In the county of which I have charge I try to get the farmers' clubs interested in the schools. Every spring and fall there is to be a special day set apart as School Day, and all the teachers of the county are invited to attend the meeting of the club on that day. The day is given up to an institute on farming work, and all the discussions relate to the schools. The teachers are instructed in agricultural principles by experts brought out for that purpose. The farmers are treated to some plain talk about their duties towards schools. A picnic dinner, a big speech in the afternoon to make everybody feel well, and the day is a success.

Let me call your attention to the artistic side of rural school

life. Children do not like ugly and unattractive things. They love brightness, cheerfulness, color, harmony. They are not happy when surrounded by things they do not love. When they are not happy they can not and do not reach their best educational effort. As a stimulus to mental exertion, clean, orderly, attractive surroundings are not to be ignored. It is explained somewhat in the habit of a great French writer, who always put on his evening dress, even to silk hat and gloves, when he sat down to write his finest passages.

Beauty is an incentive to good order. This is one good reason why music and drawing are so helpful in schools. When our surroundings are respectable and ennobling, we are apt to respond to them and be respectable ourselves. This was what was meant by the boy who misbehaved on Sunday and offered for his excuse that he had on his every day clothes and did not know that he was expected to behave.

I copy this sentence from the report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools.

"If children are daily surrounded by those influences that elevate them, that make them clean and well ordered, that make them love flowers and pictures and proper decorations, they at last reach that degree of culture where nothing else will please them. When they grow up and have homes of their own, they must have them clean, neat, bright with pictures and fringed with shade trees and flowers, for they have been brought up to be happy in no other environment."

We should use our native trees and shrubs, such as now grow wild in our wonderful Southern woods, so rich in splendid flower in the spring, so grateful in full foliage in summer, so gorgeous in color of leaf or berry in the autumn. Sometimes I ride along the road and see the woods prodigal of beautiful trees, rich in flower, or shrubs of many sorts, sweet in perfume and nodding their blooms in the soft air, and I think how kind nature has been to spread these glories in the deep, cool forest, to rest the eye and uplift the mind and then I wonder why our country teachers do not gather them in for their school grounds.

In an article on the country school house and its grounds by James Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, he says: "Many of us have distinct recollections of disagreeable school houses and grounds. We ought to arrange matters so that different impressions will be made on the little people who now venture from home

and go to school. We should associate as many attractive things around the school house as can be brought together, just as we make the parlor the most beautiful room at home in order that our friends may be pleased when they visit us."

Lessons from the living objects are always much more effective and satisfactory than those from the dull text. Nature's book is one of pictures only. I do not know that our rural schools can immediately introduce valuable lessons in agriculture, especially with the corps of teachers we now have on hand, which corps can never be improved, so long as we pay them \$25.00 a month for five months. But this I do know, that the teachers now employed, by a judicious care of the school grounds, by planting carefully arranged shrubbery, trees, flowers, grass, can stimulate a love for growing things, a desire to see them grow right, and a knowledge of what right growing is. This love of nature, and the desire to see her prodigal and luxuriant in her growth—is after all at the bottom of scientific farming, for if the farmer's son is not deeply in love with his prospective occupation, and is not deeply imbued with the desire to see his share of nature's products the most abundant that can be made, he is not likely to study any plans whereby Dame Nature can be made to exert herself in his behalf.

You will pardon me if I take a few minutes more time to discuss a kindred subject to the topic of this paper and that relates to the interior of the school room and to the personal appearance of the teacher. All things considered, commend me to the good looking teacher, a young lady who has a pleasant smile, a clean apron and collar, and whose appearance exhales that freshness and cleanness that denotes sound sense and good habits. I insist that no man who wears a dirty shirt to school, chews tobacco and spits on the floor, deserves to be intrusted with the care of our youth. We need to be clean in our habits and appearance, as well as in our teaching and in our lives.

It is the same way in the school room. Any one of us can come into a school room and in five minutes, yes, even by a glance, tell whether it is doing well or not. There is something in the clean floor, the well swept corners, the well kept stove, the window panes, possibly the flowers on the stand, the good arrangement of the desks, the pictures on the wall, and in that something which is the attention to the details of school life, that goes to make up a successful teacher. Such a teacher will have the best enrollment, the best attendance and her record will show the best teaching

results. The secret is that she or he has made the school room and grounds so pleasant and so interesting that the pupils take delight in coming. After all, the children decide whether they go to school or not. Parents give up the struggle after a while but the children persist.

Let us not adhere to the old rule that requires the useful first and then the ornamental. But rather take them together for fear we shall never reach the latter. For we may be sure that when our school houses become jewels set in the landscape of woodland and meadow and farm their beauty will linger in the memory of its students and become at last a very joy forever.

DISCUSSION

SUPERINTENDENT W. H. HAND, CHESTER, S. C.

About twenty years ago a few of the leaders in educational thought began to study the conditions existing in the rural schools in America. These schools were found to be poorly supported, almost without organization, and poorly taught. It required only a few years to evolve the popular term *The Rural School Problem*. Since that time the National Educational Association, the Southern Educational Association, and several state organizations have made some systematic study of this problem. Their investigations have laid bare many conditions in the rural schools anything but satisfactory to their friends. Such are, the lack of funds, the inferior school buildings, the inadequate equipment, the short terms, incapable teachers, sparse population, and the apathy of the people.

To one taking a superficial view of all this the rural school seems a hopeless problem. But the very fact that we regard it as a problem concedes its importance. Moreover, when such men as Dr. Harris, Prof. Hinsdale, Dr. White, Prof. Sutton, and Supts. Sabin and Skinner engage their time in the solution of this problem we may feel sure that they see a great mission in the rural school.

Whatever else may contribute to the material prosperity of a country, agriculture stands pre-eminently first. During the entire history of the South she has been essentially agricultural; and with all her recent phenomenal growth in the building of cotton mills, she must for a long time yet remain essentially agricultural. So long as we have a considerable agricultural class, our population must be largely rural, and the mission of the rural school can not remain in doubt. Any country's future is darkened whenever its agricultural population becomes a horde of ignorant peasants. So long as the rural citizens are intelligent and prosperous the government stands in little danger of shock from any widespread and sudden violence. And the force of this fact is the better understood when we remember that yet more than two-thirds of our entire population in the United States is rural, and that in the South the ratio is still larger.

The unit and the bulwark of human society is the home, and the best conditions for wholesome home surroundings are found in the rural districts. If any one doubts for a moment the accuracy of this statement, let him reflect that two-thirds of the men whom we delight to honor today are men reared in the rural districts or in small villages. In the large cities the very destruction of home-life goes on: the poorer classes crowded together in tenements, have but little knowledge of the meaning of home life; and the wealthy have but little better knowledge of the meaning of home, living in hotels and spending months in traveling. Moreover, the very lack of organization in the rural schools as a system is not altogether without compensation. The tendency in the larger cities is for the schools to monopolize the prerogatives of the home, and the home is only too ready to delegate these prerogatives.

In the next place many prosperous and intelligent families are reluctantly leaving their farms, to move to the towns to educate their children. They complain that the schools at home do not furnish what their children demand. What is the result? Their leaving only causes the burden of maintaining these schools to fall the more heavily on those left to support them. Those left will seek, too, in time, to relieve themselves of the burden by leaving the country. Then only a few small taxpayers and renters will be left. The farms will go down, rents will decrease in quantity, while the tax-rate must increase. Further, already a large number of these small tax-payers and renters have left the farms—not to school their children, but to put them into the cotton mills, where every ten-year-old child becomes a wage-earner. In such communities one of the great industries has been paralyzed, honest toil has been degraded by its associations, and the land itself will fall into the hands of undesirable settlers.

Every community, whether city or country, must depend upon its own resources for its advancement, and it can not rise above its own standard of excellence. In supporting the rural schools the people will learn one of the most important lessons in government—to help themselves. As John Fiske would put it, these people would dispel the delusion that “the government” is a sort of mysterious power, possessed of a magic inexhaustible fund of wealth, and able to do all manner of things for the benefit of “the people.” The country people, accustomed to the independence of individual effort, are least given over to the destructive principles of paternalism and pensions.

The limitations surrounding the rural schools together with the conservatism of the rural population serve as one of the most effective barriers against the introduction of fads in educational work. The purpose of all education is to give the ability to make an honest living, and to share innocently the joys of life, and nowhere can this be better appreciated than among the country people. Parents and children better understand this purpose than some would-be leaders seem to understand it. In the report of the Committee on Rural Schools, at the Milwaukee meeting of the N. E. A., are found these significant words: “Nowhere on earth has a child such advantages for elementary education as upon a good farm, where he is trained to love work and to put his brains into work. The best taught

school in a densely populated city can never equal in educative value the life upon a good farm, intelligently managed." What the city schools can never do in nature-study can be done with comparative ease in the rural schools. The entire environment is one endless laboratory, and the hundreds of experiments and investigations incident to the child's school life are intimately connected with the daily labors at his home. Then too, these country children have learned to differentiate between manual training and industrial education in a practical way—something, again, that the would-be leaders have not all learned. Here the full force of the dignity of labor finds its expression; here education means making labor more intelligent and productive, not attempting to make education stand in lieu of labor.

I feel sure that my position will be contested by some when I say that the rural school offers the very finest field for the development of teachers able to take a broad and comprehensive view of the whole field of education. I can not help believing that the rural school teacher with twenty pupils of almost as many stages of advancement, the teacher himself responsible for the entire management of the school, has some decided advantages over the city teacher with 60 or 75 closely graded pupils, the teacher responsible for only a small section of work, with a narrow view of what is above or below his field. Certainly no teacher can enlist and organize all the forces of the community in the interest of his work in a city as he can in the country. City life is too complex and the interests too diverse to gather and hold these forces.

I fully realize that this discussion has the ring of defense. No one more keenly feels the imperfections of the rural schools than I do. But if they have a great mission, as I believe they have, to point out the possibilities only emphasizes the demand for their improvement as urged in the paper just read.

A very large proportion of our population must be given a large part of their schooling in the rural schools. The demand is for better houses, centrally located and surrounded with inviting grounds; good roads leading to the school buildings; and, most important of all, competent teachers. Good teachers are necessary in any kind of school, but especially in the rural school. Put into these schools, where so much depends upon the individuality of the teacher, none but the best; none but those that are able to husband the opportunities, by making the school the vital force and center of interest in every community.

When the same labor and devotion shall have been spent on the rural schools that have been spent on the city schools, when the same organization and supervision shall have been given to the rural schools that have been given to the city schools, and when the rural schools shall have shared with the city schools the same care in the selection of teachers, then we shall hear less of the rural school problem.

SCHOOL SUPERVISION

SUPERINTENDENT W. N. SHEATS, FLORIDA.

Mr. Chairman—When your notice to prepare a paper on “The Importance of Intelligent and Capable Supervision of Schools in the South” was received, it was known that you expected nothing new, since so much has been spoken, written, and printed on that subject within the past sixty years.

The importance of school supervision being recognized everywhere and being nowhere as intelligent and as capable as it might be, the restricting phrase “in the South” is omitted, lest the impression go out that it is here considered that the schools of this section are the only ones needing better supervision.

How to secure intelligent supervision of all the schools is a question agitating the minds of educators in every section of the country. When one has congratulated himself that he has reduced it to a perfected science, something soon develops to reveal unto him his mistake.

A perfect school system, or any considerable number of schools perfectly supervised, is not to be found. Some having more nearly approached perfection than others, in our efforts to improve, it is with these best ones our own must be compared to disclose their defects and the possibilities and ways of improvement. A profitable discussion of the subject requires an honest admission of the truth that the schools of the South are sadly in need of better supervision.

The investigation of statistics shows that the schools of this section are needy in many respects. The last report of Dr. Wm. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, discloses the fact that the average number of years schooling, 200 days to the year, received by each individual in the United States, through public and private schools of all grades, is 4.99 years. This average rises approximately to 6.16 years when the great divisions embracing only the Northern and Western States are reckoned, and falls to 2.99 years, when the Southern States alone are counted. This means that in point of time the Southern youth receive less than half as many years schooling as their more favored Northern competitors.

It is learned from the same source that the average school expenditure per capita of population in the whole United States is \$2.83, which rises to \$3.78 when the Southern States are excluded, and descends to \$1.21 when they alone are considered.

The same authority shows that the average school expenditure per capita of pupils in average attendance in the whole United States is \$20.29, in the Northern and Western States alone \$27.67, in the Southern States alone \$9.01—less than one-third.

As much as these bespeak the need of longer terms and more money, yet I contend that the greatest need just now of the schools of the South is more intelligent and authoritative supervision. That business men will pay school taxes and then vote for officers confessedly unfamiliar with school business and unfit to wisely disburse the money is something incomprehensible, but is nevertheless the rule rather than the exception. They do not pursue a like foolish policy in relation to anything except the education of their own and their neighbors' children. The ante-bellum planter, when unable to give personal supervision to his slaves, employed the best overseer to be had.

Suppose a factory or a railroad were to be built and the agents should announce it was the intention of the company either to run the business without a superintendent or to award the position to the cheapest man that would accept it, or to some faithful political worker for his party services, how much stock would be subscribed for such an enterprise? There is another class equally as foolish, who oppose going beyond the limits of the town or the county to find a skilled supervisor of schools in which their children are to be made or unmade, but who send to Europe for an expert superintendent of a dairy farm, or for a dog-trainer.

That professional supervision is an indispensable factor in wise school economy is well attested by the fact that the best schools are found where they have the closest and most skillful supervision. A good school defends itself, requiring no apology for its cost, while a poor one is a waste and indefensible, it matters not how *small* its cost.

One good school may spring up under the influence of a superior teacher without owing anything to supervision, but a system of good schools is found only where there is an efficient superintendent. A large majority of the schools of the South are scattered through the rural districts, practically without oversight, while the magic touch of a skilled hand would make them a hun-

dred-fold more valuable almost instantly. To continue them without expert supervision is to continue to demonstrate how school funds can be expended without adequate return.

It is generally held that the greatest need of education in the South is more money to support the schools and to increase salaries. I contend that an equally as great or even greater need, is better supervision to demonstrate the fact that the schools are worth what they cost. In every business increase in capital and in salaries follows acknowledged worth, and larger profits lead to greater investment. Few employers are so unwise as to invest more capital or to concede increase in salaries until employees can show by the profits their efficiency, interest and greater worth. So the schools through better supervision must enforce an acknowledgment of their worth before increase in funds and in salaries will make material and permanent growth. The great mass of the people are not as gullible as they are sometimes supposed to be, and are cognizant of the fact that many schools are being maintained that do not educate. Not until the schools are made better and the controlling spirits in government are forced to admit that they are performing an indispensable state function, will the people rise in their might and demand that they be given merited support.

Whenever it can be shown that industry and commerce are enhanced by universal education and that the safest and best paying investment that a community or state can make is in her youth, then money for the schools will be forthcoming. This section may be comparatively poor and environment unfavorable for liberal provisions for education, but money is never wanting even here for paying investments, or for the accomplishment of that which is desired above all else.

Who can not call to mind a community as well off financially twenty years ago as it is today that was then practically without a school building and pleading too great poverty to erect one, controlling sentiment averse to taxation for a free school, having a thing called a school but really unworthy of patronage or of the trifling amount expended upon it? Can you not now point to that same community without apparent increase in wealth, yet possessing a magnificent building, a crowded school, a citizenship proud of their school and cheerfully paying taxes for its support—all ardent advocates of the education of the masses? Is it not a fact that thousands of such communities are found all over this

Southland of ours? What brought about the change? Some successful and enthusiastic teacher or school officer has converted the minds and loosened the purse strings of the people for betterment, and they were not so poor as they thought themselves. Thousands more of such workers are in demand, and similar results will follow earnest and enthusiastic effort—enthusiasm begets enthusiasm as surely as deadness and indifference produce their like.

As much as the fact may be condoned, apologized for, or attempted to be explained away, it is nevertheless true that the ruling class in the South are as yet only half-hearted in the public school movement, nor can this section rise to its opportunities in public education until this class experiences a change of heart. The Southern people are a most wonderful people when once thoroughly aroused and in dead earnest in any cause. Their history proves the assertion. The public schools have come to stay, the ranks of outspoken opponents are rapidly depleting, and the friends of education are multiplying in numbers, in enthusiasm, and in aggressiveness at such rate as to give hope that Georgia, North Carolina, and other states now unwilling to levy an adequate tax for schools, will soon vie with the best states of the North and West in educational support and enthusiasm.

The education of the negro is the great stumbling-block of those but half-in-earnest in popular education and is made the scape-goat for their opposition. But that more liberal support will follow upon demonstration of worthiness is nowhere more strikingly true than in negro education. When the best thought of our leaders is committed to their elevation, it will devise and develop a more practical education, such as will produce more immediate and visible returns for the money expended upon the race, teaching and fitting it to contribute to the development of the industries and add to the wealth of the section. The plea that education serves only to unfit the black man for useful citizenship, multiplying his wants, while decreasing his willingness and ability to earn, will not cease until the race is taught how to do more things with greater skill. It is confidently believed that, if his education is allowed to continue as at present, the burden of the race will be an ever-increasing quantity. But when head and hand are equally trained this burden and the drawbacks resulting from the presence of the race will diminish in an increasing ratio until it becomes entirely self-sustaining. Then will the race be proud

of the self-help contributed to its elevation, and become more acceptable to the whites as fellow-citizens, and no longer will arguments in defense of negro education be necessary.

DIVISION IN SUPERVISION

The supervisory functions of school systems are usually divided among the following officials with local variations in names and designation of duties: State Superintendents, School Boards, City and County Superintendents, and Local Trustees, Supervisors, or Directors.

No state officer requires higher or more extensive qualifications to insure the best performance of his functions, than a State Superintendent, standing at the head of a state system of schools; still, the statutory limitations and the extensive field over which his jurisdiction extends forbid his giving that personal attention to any number of the schools that is essential to efficient supervision.

Dr. Emerson E. White, in designating what should be the qualifications of a superintendent of schools, somewhere said:

"A school superintendent should be a Cæsar, a Solomon, and an angel, all in one person."

This is particularly true of an ideal state superintendent. He should be a Cæsar to organize and direct his forces and to overcome Alps of opposition; a Solomon to know all things; an angel to be loved and revered by all, gifted with angelic spirit to compel and awe all into cooperation and to their best efforts. Unfortunately for the conditions in this section, state superintendents are required to give too much of their energies to work of a clerical nature, so that if possessed of a modicum of those ideal qualities time would be lacking for their exercise in supervising schools.

Were it possible for the influence of a state superintendent to reach every rural school in the commonwealth—these being most willing to accept and most in need of his supervision—there is in many of the states much fear of one-man power and such ultra-democracy in notion of government that there remains to this officer but little more than *advisory powers*, and he is left to do what he can through his ability to *inspire, to advise, or to persuade*.

The duties of a state superintendent are multitudinous, requiring physical strength, knowledge, and tact; that is, if he undertakes to direct educational influences, to awaken and sustain interest in popular education, to prepare and secure the passage

of such laws as will insure educational progress, to harmonize the discordant and disloyal elements incessantly arising and causing friction and threatening to disrupt the system, and to defend the education of the masses through speech and press.

In few, if in any, of the states of this section could the invaluable services of that ideal man—were he in existence—be given to these supremely important duties while such meagre provision is made for his clerical assistance. Sometimes none, at best but one or two poorly paid assistants are supplied him, while his specific duties as prescribed in the statutes so fully occupy his time as to leave little or none for the real work of supervision and inspection. These latter duties seem to appear to the average citizen and statesman as rather mythical and quite superfluous, and are thought to be enumerated that it may not appear that this office is without sufficient duties to justify its existence. Fortunate is that state superintendent to whom an ample clerical force is given to relieve him of office routine. In states of the North and West some of the state superintendents are furnished from a half dozen to twenty-odd well-paid assistants, while in the South that officer to whom is supplied one capable and properly paid helper, is fortunate.

Though a state superintendent combines the qualities of a Cæsar, of a Solomon, and some of those of an angel, the limitations upon the possibilities of his work preclude that personal supervision of schools needful to their success.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

We turn to the next agency—the board of education. Experience everywhere has demonstrated that the active business men who constitute these boards, usually serving without salary, can not be relied upon and ought not to be expected to supervise the schools. However willing, they lack time, efficiency, and expert knowledge requisite to more than to manage the finances, to co-operate with the superintendent in the election and assignment of teachers, and to supervise the external machinery of the schools. If it is extremely difficult to secure a body of distinguished and able citizens to look well and faithfully after the interests of one state institution, which all will admit is the case, does it not seem that we may as well look elsewhere than to boards for those who will give the necessary care and attention to the schools of the South?

TRUSTEES, SUPERVISORS, OR DIRECTORS

The insufficiency of the supervision of local trustees, supervisors, or directors is such that they may as well be eliminated from the discussion as unworthy of serious consideration. This kind of supervision, through a too great prevalence of the personal-liberty and government-by-the-people ideas, has been relied upon too much in the South for the good of the cause of education—ideal school systems do not flourish in an atmosphere of ultra-democracy.

When a people become properly committed to popular education the assumption of individual rights become less pronounced and the tendency is to insist less upon local school government and to trust more and more to the administration of professional experts. In New England, the district or town system of school government held sway for two centuries or more, but as educational interests intensified the smaller political divisions grew willing to concede control until they reached the point of uniting two or more towns and employing an efficient superintendent for a "supervisory district." In Massachusetts, the state furnishes \$750 per annum as part pay of an officer while the supervisory district must pay in addition as much or more, making a minimum salary of \$1,500 for a supervisor, who devotes all of his time to this work and inspects each school at least once a month. Through this cooperative supervision 155 supervisors look after the schools of 253 of the towns (townships) in that small state, while 100 towns are still too democratic to accept such close supervision. Such is the revolution through deep and intelligent interest in education after long experience with the work of local directors among a people characterized above all others by a devotion to local government, and it furnishes an example of what may be expected everywhere when education becomes esteemed as a paramount state function. It is needless to state the fact that few local school officers are capable of supervising the schools, and still fewer give faithful attention to the duties entrusted to them. So again, an efficient supervising agency must be looked for elsewhere than to local trustees, supervisors, or directors.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

That vitalizing supervision necessary to give value to the schools of this section can be hoped for only through city and county superintendents with their deputies, or assistants. The

great bulk of Southern schools, as before stated, are in the rural districts. Our city systems, where they exist at all, are about as intelligently and ably managed as in other sections of our common country; it is therefore our present purpose to magnify the office of county superintendent.

To this officer must we look, above all others, to bring the schools and teachers under the skillful guidance and the watchful eye of an expert. His duties, like those of a state superintendent, are various and numberless, though not so extensive if his whole time and energy be given to the work, but that his healthful influence may be felt in every nook and corner of his county. Where it is not possible for this influence to pervade a county, it is advisable that one or more capable assistants on his nomination be furnished the superintendent. Every teacher in a rural district—usually responsible to and looked after by no one—and every school and community should be brought directly in touch with the inspiring influence of an enthusiastic and capable educator, one with high ideals and professional force. It can hardly be gain-said that the county superintendent in a state system is the most important factor in school machinery, and that his importance, so far as his county is concerned, eclipses the state superintendent and every other agency in the work of awakening and inspiring the people, in elevating the teaching body, and in giving real value to the schools. In short, he is the very heart, the life-giving force that pulsates through and vitalizes the whole system.

The least valuable of a county superintendent's services is his clerical work. A mere office man, it matters not how faultless in making reports or courteous and prompt with his correspondence—many are sadly remiss in even these minor duties—is of comparatively little value when contrasted with one skillful in the performance of the supervising functions. If his conception of duty ends with the discharge of office routine—the work of a mere clerk—his compensation should be that of a clerk.

Loyalty is another one of the supreme duties of this officer, loyalty to every one and to every interest he represents; first, to the children and the teachers; then, to his board and ranking officer. If not loyal to the latter, he of all others should not be the first to denounce as "inoperative" a statute carefully drawn and designed to promote educational advancement. Nor should he take the lead in any of the following acts: in discarding the policy of his chief; in stigmatizing his every act either as a usurpation

of authority or a violation of law; in inciting incendiarism either as author or instigator of the anonymous articles of "tax-payer;" in brief, in opposing every one and every thing attempted except an increase in his own salary. It is a little remarkable that such are forgetful that the traitor is often the first to lose his own head—that loyalty he needs, he should to others give.

It is passing strange that some never seem to learn that only a loyal, sincere and honest man can stand long before the people, who prefer to endure one with known defects than to experiment with a prodigy gifted as well in disloyalty and duplicity. That school officer is to be truly pitied who is beset with a non-removable assistant or subordinate smarting under the feeling that his pre-eminent abilities were overlooked in the selection of a leader, therefore yielding to the temptation to become the mouthpiece of malcontents, a searcher for flaws in the statutes, the inspirer of unacknowledged newspaper criticism, and an evil genius possessed of an incurable mania of want-of-cooperation. The officer so afflicted has cause to pray that righteous judgment be visited speedily upon such a head. The general of an army with disloyal and treacherous officers to execute his commands need not hope to march to victory, no more can a school officer verify the wisdom of his policy with traitorous subordinates as his lieutenants. Should the occasion ever arise to name something more despicable and hateful than every thing else, present a regular smart-Aleck subordinate, who never can be relied upon to be loyal or to cooperate in any thing, and you may rest assured that the something new under the sun has been found.

It is plead with considerable justice that the main reason why the county superintendency is not more effective, is because of small pay. Some statistician has published that the average annual salary of these officers in the whole country is only \$828, while it is but little more than \$400 in many of the Southern states. The latter amount is plainly too small either to secure or to retain men of ability and of professional skill in such positions. It is at the same time a significant fact that the county superintendents receiving the least salaries are as a rule the best paid for the service rendered. It is confidently believed that a wonderful revolution in the appreciation accorded these officers, as evidenced by the salaries paid them, would be the immediate result if all of them could be induced to try the experiment of making themselves truly worthy the amounts paid them. That employee or public servant

who calculates to strike a just mathematical balance between his service and its compensation, seldom fails to err in his own favor, hence his pay seldom, if ever, is fixed at his own estimate of his worth. All having positions to fill attempt to steer clear of the chronic salary growler and of the fellow withholding his best efforts under the supposition that they would not be justly rewarded. The people are for the most part reasonably intelligent and fair-minded and may be relied upon to award a public servant sooner or later approximately what he is worth. The public, like an individual, is disposed to insist that increase in wages shall follow as the reward of demonstrated worth rather than be offered as a stimulus to interest and greater activity. While it is true that many school officers are over-paid for such service as is rendered, it is equally certain that a valuable superintendent is seldom, if ever, adequately remunerated.

Though scarcely a beginning has been made in reciting the essential qualifications and duties of an ideal county superintendent, still it is sufficient to carry the conviction that he, too, should combine in one person the elements of a general, a sage, and a saint.

Among the high and important functions of a county superintendent, school visiting stands first. The term is used in its broadest application, not meaning one of these little calls which is, in fact, simply a sneak-in, a few minutes look-on, and a slip-out, the chief aim and motive of which was to count as performed a duty required by statute. Even an ordinary school boy is not deceived by one of these little perfunctory calls and knows full well that the spirit of the law is not complied with, and that the great obligation, privilege, responsibility and opportunity of a school visit is not met in the slightest degree. Any school visit is of little value where there is no investigation into the character and method of instruction and where suggestions for improvement, when necessary, are not made with the view of inspiring and encouraging teachers and of leaving deeper impressions of the object and value of education. These impressions should be made in such way as to reach pupils, teachers and patrons. Every superintendent should seek to have his relations with teachers so amicable and cordial that his visits will be welcomed, and he himself esteemed as a friend and helper rather than a critic and master.

Another of the high functions the county superintendent

should strive to perform is to bring teachers into such relations with one another that their associations and experiences may be mutually helpful. This he may do through the medium of properly conducted teachers' meetings, institutes, county associations, etc.

He may also perform an invaluable service by becoming the medium for conveying to teachers the most successful methods of instruction and discipline witnessed in his rounds of visits, thus inspiring and inciting all to attempt some excellence worthy of emulation and of his conveyance. In line with this, he may become a source of inspiration to patrons and may stimulate them to emulate the best districts in the erection of creditable school buildings and in the improvement of school grounds by discreet recitals of what others have done in this respect and the ways in which it was done. No service is more directly in the line of his duty or more likely to yield larger profits as tactful efforts in instructing patrons in their relations to their school, and in developing in them the wholesome ambition to seek to have the best school in a county.

Some of the most effective and imperishable work of the county superintendent may be done around the hearthstone while, on a tour of visitation, he is, of necessity, partaking of the hospitality of a patron. That superintendent is to be pitied and his fruitage must be meagre indeed who holds himself aloof from the parents of his pupils and enjoys not the ardent support of many whole families from the two heads down to the children too young to be enrolled in the schools.

The remembrance of these family associations is the brightest and happiest in the lives of many of the officers imbued with the spirit of a true county superintendent, and privileged to supervise rural schools. There is hardly one who, having enjoyed these pleasant associations and golden opportunities, does not long to live them over again both for the pleasure and for the opportunity afforded for lasting and telling work. Where these privileges are improved in the spirit of a true educational missionary, it is difficult to calculate the value of a county superintendent, many country youth—and it is from the country youth that a majority of the most useful men and women come—are now in schools for higher education, many have graduated therefrom and are teaching and are filling other useful and important positions, who might date the birth of their ambition and their desire to attain important

positions in life through the medium of education from the night the roof of their parents sheltered the county superintendent. Let these officers cease complaining of small salaries and figuring to measure interest and effort by their salaries, and let them get earnestly at the sublime and heaven-approved work of men-making, and verily they shall not lose their reward. Pardon the digression, for the temptation to exhort a little is very strong.

It is also a duty and the privilege of these officers to embrace all favorable opportunities at public gatherings, educational and otherwise, to awaken intelligent interest in the cause of education among the masses.

Some shrink from these duties lest they create the reputation of being educational cranks. Would that the zeal of many would honestly win for them the sobriquet—the so-called crank is about the only individual accomplishing much in our times. Thank God for cranks! Were they living at this time, the world would call Galileo a crank, Christopher Columbus a crank, Martin Luther a crank, John Wesley a crank, our Saviour a crank, and every other enthusiastic leader in thought and real reformer that ever lived. No greater boon could come to the South than for her to develop one million rabid educational cranks this very year.

If a county superintendent does not use his county newspapers, not necessarily always, over his own signature, in the attempt to instruct the people and to mold sentiment in the line of his movements, he neglects a great opportunity and fails to employ his most effective helper. Public sentiment must be won to his side before he may expect consummate success. The confession is forced upon us, that but few school officers have been sufficiently wise to utilize effectively the power of the press.

So much is expected and required, and is really possible of accomplishment by this wonderful man, an ideal county superintendent, that one brief address does not afford space in which to name in detail the many essential qualifications, positive and negative or to enlarge upon an outline of the many powers and duties of such an officer. In cataloguing his privileges and responsibilities the laws of no state would fully compass the subject. Hence that superintendent looking to the statutes for a measure of his aims and efforts, and circumscribing his endeavors by what he finds recorded there, has but small conception of his sublime opportunities, and is, in reality, incapable and unworthy of its high functions.

It may prove profitable to catalogue these qualifications, powers and duties, not as gathered from statutes but as collated from the best authorities and living examples. All of these might be encompassed under a few general heads, but lest some superintendents be so indifferent, some so dead, some so callous, or others so self-satisfied as not to perceive their peculiar defects unless in a sense personated, it is deemed best to give this catalogue somewhat in detail:

I. Physically the county superintendent should be sound and in vigorous health, neither too young nor too old, of good address, neat in attire, possessed of a genius for work, capable of great endurance, and free from objectionable personal habits.

II. Mentally, he should be possessed of sound sense and clear judgment, executive ability, the faculty of organization, insight into human nature. He should be tactful, prudent, judicious, having foresight, individuality and the ability to take the initiative.

III. In point of natural disposition he should not be backboneless, but of dauntless courage, not too politic or cowardly to stand sentinel at the entrance doorway to the profession, as well as opening the back door occasionally, not susceptible of flattery nor guillible in the hands of smooth-tongued venders of school wares, yet never afraid to purchase what is needed and helpful when having the means to do so. He should be independent in thought and action, approachable and genial in manner, having ability to control without austerity, full of enthusiastic zeal and energy, with a natural power of stimulating others to their best efforts, and of sufficiently strong personality to lead and mould school boards, teachers and patrons. He should possess a genuine sympathy for teachers and real love for children. He should be of sterling integrity, free from the mercenary spirit, seeking office not for what there is in it nor as a stepping stone to higher things, but as a life work for the good of the schools and the elevation of mankind.

IV. His education and experience should have given him broad scholarship, good business sense, system and method, and should have made him the recognized equal of the best business and professional men of his county—a leader in thought and a moulder of public opinion.

V. Professionally he should have had successful experience in teaching, be versed in the history of education and the best

pedagogic thought, a student of the science and art of teaching. He should have a thorough knowledge of the school laws of his state, and a familiarity with educational appliances, devices and texts sufficient to enable him to discriminate between the valuable and worthless, a knowledge of the best schools and school systems, enabling him to recognize good teaching when he sees it. He should have the ability to give teachers professional instruction, and possess that insight and judgment which would enable him to distinguish between teachers, largely recognizing them by their appearance and conversation, and wisely to adjust them to places and conditions.

A superintendent possessing such qualifications should be empowered, and it would be his duty, to exercise general oversight of the educational interest of his county; to appoint, or at least to nominate, teachers and to dismiss or to recommend for dismissal teachers deserving it; to cancel teachers' certificates for sufficient cause; to assign teachers to grades, in consultation with principals; to decide disputes referred to him on appeal; to exercise general supervision of the architecture of school buildings, employing expert architects when expensive buildings are to be erected; to recommend all items of expenditures from school funds including teachers' salaries; to nominate subordinate school officers after consultation with patrons; to recommend the purchasing of school appliances and furniture; to arrange programs, to select text books and to prepare courses of study in consultation with the strongest teachers; to audit all accounts payable from school funds; to nominate his own assistant or a supervising teacher; to encourage and direct research, professional study, reading circles and institutes, and to manifest a spirit of sympathetic helpfulness toward his teachers; to inspire and instruct the patrons and the public and to promote the establishment of libraries, and social and educative organizations among them. With it all, it is his duty to familiarize himself with the best authorities on school management and methods of instruction, keeping himself abreast with the times and preparing himself to serve as arbiter on all questions professional and pedagogical that may arise.

SUPERVISING TEACHER

The above enumeration might be extended to a tedious length but enough has been said to justify the conclusion that the individual hardly exists who could fully measure up to the requirements

for the office of an ideal county superintendent. Hence in counties with 30 or more schools a progressive system demands that at least two experts should be provided to meet all the functions of a properly supervised system of county schools. One of these should look after matters of a business character while the other should attend to the instruction and questions strictly professional. This would at first meet with decided opposition, like every movement calling for increased expenditure, but it is sincerely believed that it would prove to be the wisest investment that could be made for public education. Where county superintendents are elected by popular vote with scarcely any qualifications as a prerequisite for the office, since it often happens that a merchant, lawyer, farmer, or, still worse, a stranded politician is elevated to such a responsible position, the plan of two officers especially commends itself. The officer elected by popular vote could devote his attention to such business matters as he was capable of, while the county board should provide a really expert supervising teacher, who should devote all of his time to the internal work of the schools. He might be a continuous traveler spending a day or a week, as necessity might dictate, at one school, devoting his time to helping and instructing the teacher. The proper execution of this plan would provide something like a continuous county normal and traveling institute which, of necessity, would compel each teacher to so prepare himself for his duties as to satisfy the critical and continuous supervision of the expert teacher. It would also have the tendency of bringing all of the teachers of the county under a uniform system, making each a significant figure in the problem to be solved, thereby doubling the efficiency of the schools and promoting harmony among the teachers and school officers, since there would be a more perfect understanding of the work to be done, and a heartier cooperation in its accomplishment.

In conclusion, since the history of the world demonstrates conclusively that nations have always ranked commercially, socially, politically, and morally as they have educationally, and since statistics show how little the South is doing in education as compared with the Northern and Western states—how meager is the school expenditure and how great is the opposition to making it adequate; how poor is the school supervision and how great is the indifference towards bettering it as well as the unwillingness to pay sufficient salaries to insure its becoming more active and intelligent—in short, how great and numerous are the wants and

defects of the schools of this section and how much opposition, indifference and poverty must be overcome before the pace in improvement can be quickened—when I reflect upon this and consider what the result must be, an impulse steals over me to call upon the shades of Thos. Jefferson, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Ben Hill, Alexander Stephens, and the rest who gave standing to the South to invoke the powers above, if such privilege be permitted to disembodied spirits, to send down some influence that will awaken the South and put her earnestly at the sublime work of making men such as shall regain and forever maintain her prestige.

THE PLACE OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

The branches of study in the elementary schools are chosen for the purpose of securing two useful and reasonable ends. In the first place they are chosen to give the child an ability to understand his environment; and to come into a mastery of it so that he can make it useful to himself. He is taught arithmetic in order that he may divide and conquer; in order that he may measure the things and forces of his environment and learn how to adapt one set of things and forces to control and utilize another. He is taught geography in order that he may understand the causal relations existing between his habitat or the place in which he lives and other places as well as other systems of things and events on the earth.

On the other hand a second reason for adopting a branch in the course of study is that it develops some faculty or power in the child and gives him possession of himself in that respect, for one of the primary objects is to develop the intellect, the memory, the judgment, or the heart. By the expression heart I mean the aggregate of affections and inclinations of the soul. Some discipline in school, like writing, drawing, calisthenics or manual training, finds its place in the curriculum because of its power to develop the will, the tenacity of purpose, the ability to pay long and continuous attention to one thing and to form habits of industry, cleanliness,

regularity and punctuality and thus acquire those virtues which make a man a better citizen than he could possibly be without them, which make his service of more value to his fellow men and give him the ability to get a larger share of service from them than he otherwise could.

Let any one take up the branches of the common school in the light of these purposes and he will find that those branches as they are in the schools are all needed and that it would not be possible to make any one of them a substitute for any other. But I wish to call attention to the fact that the two principles or purposes which I have named as the reasons which have determined the adoption of branches of study in the schools not only are not antagonistic but in many particulars they agree absolutely. The cultivation of the intellect, for instance, by such studies as arithmetic, grammar, and literature, has for its result not only the unfolding of the powers of the individual within himself, but the enlargement of the individual's sphere of influence among his fellow men, making him useful to them and making them useful to him.

The boy or girl who understands arithmetic is not only cultivated or accomplished to that extent but so much the more useful in the family, in the industrial community, and in the nation, and by so much the more able to conquer nature for his or her own benefit and to make useful combinations with his or her fellow members of society throughout the world.

So, too, in the matter of literature. The literature of the English language or the literature of any other language reveals human nature in some one or more of its national manifestations. Indeed each literary work portrays some trait or perhaps several traits or phases of human nature. The student of literature comes to know the secrets of the human heart. He comes to know how feelings and emotions may become clear ideas and convictions of the intellect, and then how they become translated into deeds, habits, and established forms of living such as appear in the network of manners and customs which form the substance of the daily life of each man, woman and child. Literature and mathematics—literature the first and mathematics the second—form important branches of all school education. Literature is the first and most important because in order to adjust himself to society, one must understand the motives, desires, and views of the world which his fellowmen entertain. It is impossible for a man to live

in a community where he has no insight into all knowledge of the world view of his fellowmen and does not know the things that make up their daily consciousness. In all nations, tribes and peoples, the man who is entirely ignorant of the prevailing code of manners and ethics is not permitted to enjoy the freedom of civil society and perhaps is not even permitted to live. One must be heedful of the fundamental requirements of society, such as the respect for life and property, and the respect for the sense of decency of one's community, or else he will be restrained in person and perhaps deprived of life. It is well to remember that this is so not only in savage and half-civilized peoples but also in the highest and most refined and in the freest and most liberty-loving communities in the world.

This is the ground on which I pronounce literature the most important of all branches of school education, whether it be in China, where Confucius and Mencius form the matter of school education, or East India, where the Vedas and the great heroic poems form the staple of the course of study, or among Moham-medan nations, where the Koran, or in Greece, where Homer's Iliad and Odyssey were the school books, or in the schools of Boston, New York, St. Louis and San Francisco, where English literature in the school reading books does its work in enlightening the pupil as to the modes of thinking and the motives of his fellowmen.

After literature comes geography, meaning by the term what is usually understood by it in the elementary school. After geography comes history, first that of one's native country, secondly, that of the civilizations of the world; after history, grammar as a special study of the forms of language. In the grammatical forms are revealed the methods of the action of the intellect. For grammar is a sort of concrete logic, revealing not only the methods of thinking but also the methods of perception and the methods of recollection which form the laws of memory.

These branches which throw so much light upon the individuality of the pupil—upon his own nature and upon the nature of the institutions as well as upon the structure of the world in which he lives—form the tools of thought and action; they are the machines, the instruments by which he supplements his body; they are the organs by which he energizes upon the world outside of him and by which he makes with his fellows combinations useful to them and doubly useful to himself.

When an attack is made upon any one of these branches of

study it should cause us to reflect upon the individual and social necessity that has placed it in the curriculum. An attack upon geography, for instance, should cause us to consider for a moment what one's education would be if the study of geography were entirely omitted in the elementary school. Sufficient reflection upon the inconveniences which would arise in one's practical life will enable us to form a list of the points of usefulness to be found in geography. One will be able to draw up a sort of rough inventory of what the child gets from the study of geography for a few years in his early youth.

Let us for the moment make a list of the important items which the child would get from a superficial study of geography in the elementary schools under what would be admitted to be a poor quality of instruction, namely the unaided study of the text-book, the text-book being of an inadequate pattern, and the so-called teaching being confined chiefly to hearing the words of the book repeated. The pupils of average intellect will acquire some understanding of the main topics touched upon and they will have in memory in a more or less digested form some facts connected with them which will be retained throughout their lives. The constant use of certain typical facts familiarity with which is demanded by the newspaper and magazine literature of the day and which is more or less required by the daily gossip over national and international affairs, keeps the memory fresh in these matters. The average child will carry off with him a pretty vivid idea that the shape of the earth is round "like a ball or orange," or like the moon and the sun which he sees every day. He will also acquire the very important idea that the earth is one of the bodies which move around the sun although he may not learn the technical term "planet." These simple ideas carry with them a correction of mere sensuous observation by an abstract and deeply scientific train of thought. One's sense-perception does not avail to convince him that the earth is round. This can be reached only by reasoning on the logical presuppositions which are implied to make the fact before him possible. But once attained, a whole system of inferences extending throughout the life of the individual from the idea of the earth's rotundity, and its revolutions will be initiated, if nothing more is learned from geography.

In the next place there will be acquired the ideas of latitude and longitude which determine with mathematical exactness the

location of any place with reference to base lines like the equator or the first meridian. The pupil will certainly learn something regarding latitude and longitude and he will learn a method, the only method by which geographical descriptions may be made accurate. No matter how superficial his study of geography may be, he will also form some approximate ideas of the latitude and longitude of many given places. He will remember, for instance, that the United States in which he lives is in north latitude and that most of his country is in west longitude as compared with the meridian of Washington. He will learn that nearly all of Europe is in east longitude as compared with the meridian of Greenwich.

We must remember that these general superficial notions are more important than any more specific notions which follow later. It is of more importance to the individual to know that Brazil is in south latitude while we are in north latitude than to know that the mouth of the Amazon is on the equator and that the capital of Brazil is about 23 degrees south. For ordinary practical thinking the generalities of geography are exceedingly important.

Next the pupil will come to form mental images of the territories that are occupied by states and nations. First, however, he will form an idea of the contours of the several continents and of the great oceans which separate those continents. Then he will seek to learn the location on those continents of each of the several states and nations. He can not help acquiring at the same time some historic adjuncts to his geographical knowledge. The map of Great Britain will call up in his mind much that he has heard in regard to the relations of the United States to that country. France, Spain, Italy, Germany and Russia will each suggest certain unclassified and ill-digested items of knowledge which he has collected from hearsay or general experience regarding those countries and it will give him pleasure to be able to reduce to consistency and order some portion of the chaotic information which he already possesses. It will be of value to him every day of his life to have some notions of the shapes, boundaries, and general positions of the states of his own country.

Besides these there is another class of geographical categories which relates to the formation and modification of the features of land and water. Even the poorest geography yet made deals with rivers and gives information regarding their sources and their outlets; as well as their navigability and their usefulness in

furnishing motive power for manufactures. It gives information regarding lakes, highlands, lowlands, and the trend of mountain chains.

Two objects on the earth especially arouse man's wonder and excite him to reflection, namely the monster elevations of the surface of the land which we call mountains, and the vast, seemingly unlimited extension of the surface of the ocean. It has been the habit of geographies for two or three generations to explain the elevation of mountain chains by the molten condition of the elements in the interior of the earth. Once the elevations were supposed to be caused by volcanic agencies, now perhaps the general opinion is that the gradual cooling and consequent contraction of the earth's crust produce wrinkles on a large scale, wrinkles large enough to form the mountain systems of the Alps or of the Himalayas. No pupil of average intelligence who has studied geography in school at any time during the last sixty or seventy years has escaped forming some idea regarding the prodigious forces of nature which lift up the mountains. Nor has any one within the last fifty years or more escaped the important geological idea of the wearing down of the mountains and hills by the constant effect of rain and the escape of water carrying a load of solid matter to the sea by brooks and rivers. In other words, the average pupil has formed some idea of the meteorological process by which water evaporates and the air filled with moisture is submitted to the chilling effect of high altitudes which condenses the water again into either fogs or rain clouds so that it comes down to the ocean again, bearing with it on its way the detritus of the rocks and soil.

This thought of the formation of elements of difference in the land surface—that is to say the formation of the varieties of high and low, warm and cold, wet and dry, elements—and of the process by which these differences are gradually removed or eliminated is a most important idea and is likely to be required for use by the average individual many times in the course of a year, or perhaps in a single week. This geographical fact or principle is a tool of thought, an instrument with which we scientifically understand and explain thousands and thousands of phenomena which come under observation.

Climate and the dependence upon it of the fertility of the soil can not escape the attention of the superficial student of geography. He gets typical facts, also in regard to heat and cold. He

comes to understand the reason for the distribution of heat as found in the continually varying inclination of the surface of the earth toward the sun at different times of the year and at different latitudes. He understands also how altitude above sea level affects the temperature. Let an explanation be given in any particular case and it is in the nature of the human mind to generalize it, if occasion offers, and occasion is constantly offering in a country where the people as a people are eye-minded and read the daily newspapers, as well as ear-minded and listen to the gossip of their fellows.

A more important series of observations is initiated by the superficial study of geography of which we are speaking. For the average pupil notes with interest the fact that there is diversity of labor over the surface of the earth, that the people of one section produce one series of agricultural or mineral products and another a different series. He learns, too, that commerce can equalize these productions, taking the surplus of production from one place to the other place that needs it. He learns that the division of labor therefore, assisted by commerce, enables each person to enjoy the productions of all his fellowmen. He learns how the raw materials produced by agriculture and mining are changed by manufactures into goods which are of far more value than the raw materials. He notes with some wonder and perhaps some incredulity the fact that commerce creates values by converting natural productions which were of no use or value where they were, into articles of very great use and value to the people of another country. The surplus vegetable productions of most of the tropical regions are of no use or value where they are. Commerce therefore performs a miracle by turning *things* into *property* carrying them from where they are worthless to where they are valuable. This is the alchemy of the social combination of man with man—the social whole—and it is exceedingly important that the child shall get into his mind quite early in his life some typical facts in regard to this matter, and that he shall apply the typical facts in explaining the phenomena of his experience.

Geography is not only a science of the formation and modification of different forms or features of land and water, but it is more especially an introduction to the elements of sociology. All the text-books of geography speak about the occupations of man, and they show more or less clearly the reasons for the diversity of human industry. Moreover all geographies treat of certain ele-

mentary ideas of anthropology. They treat of the different races of men and of their physical and mental characteristics. It is of still greater interest that these geographical treatises describe important facts regarding the different stages of civilization—savage, barbarous, civilized and enlightened—treat of the costumes worn, and give a few glimpses at social habits; pictorial illustrations of the architecture of the cities and villages, or of typical specimens of the vehicles for travel; facts regarding the agricultural products raised; cuts showing the appearance of plants and animals; natural curiosities, such as waterfalls, ravines, canons, glaciers, etc.

The average child gets some notion of the government of the several countries and makes some comparison between the freedom of individuality encouraged under one and another of the different forms of government. He loves to hear of countries which allow the citizen an opportunity for initiative just as his own country does. Each new item regarding government, style of clothing, or peculiarities of products, helps the pupil to remember the other items with which it is connected. Particularly interesting to the child are the pictures of the wild animals—the carnivorous beast, the reptiles, and the birds—and these items especially assist his memory of the dryer but more essential facts of geography.

Even the old-fashioned geography gives items regarding the religious beliefs of the peoples of the different countries. Religion is the underlying principle of civilization. Thus we have a repertoire of the main points of sociology, namely religious beliefs, forms of government, industrial occupations, races, and costumes, and finally what each nation puts into the market of the world from its surplus for exchange with other peoples, and what it receives in return.

There certainly is nothing of more importance that the school gives the child—next to literature with its revelation of the feelings and thoughts of his fellows—than this matter of the division of labor and the need of each population on the face of the earth for the other populations who contribute to it certain necessities of life. Is there anything more productive of kindly and hopeful feelings towards one's fellowmen living under different governments and separated by vast distances than this study which finds each useful to the industrial whole?

In geography the pupil comes into contact with these substantial facts that lie outside of his daily experience and yet are

necessary to him for explanation of it. Good instruction in the school will, of course, draw constantly on the daily experience of the pupil in order to explain the colossal facts which are not to be found in his neighborhood. The small things and phenomena which he sees every day about his habitat enable him to learn to understand the greater phenomena which are of historical importance. He sees, for example, every day the effect of the last rain-freshet in wearing away the soil of the road on the hill-side, and it furnishes the small fact by which he interprets the large fact of the wearing away of the Niagara gorge.

It must be admitted, however, that it is a mistake to send the child to the geographical investigation of his neighborhood before he has heard anything about the great facts of the world; he should be put on the investigation of his habitat in connection with the great facts which are mentioned in the geography. One approaches the explanation of great facts through little facts, but he should learn as quickly as possible to see the latter on the background of great facts; hence they should be taught together. If this is so it is certainly a mistake to keep pupils for many weeks or even many days upon the study of their neighborhood before taking up the colossal facts which are of world-importance.

Above all I should wish to call to mind again as the central reason for its place in the curriculum the general value of geography in giving the pupil an insight into natural causes. In early periods of the history of mankind and among all savage peoples that are contemporary with us the facts of nature are explained by animism, that is to say, by the interference of evil spirits. A vast net-work of superstition covers the face of nature from the gaze of the savage. But the child who begins to study geography begins to find one fact behind another fact. He learns forces and how forces make things and how forces modify things. His knowledge constantly grows from the symbolic which ignores the causal nexus over to the scientific and prosaic view which comprehends the rationale of phenomena.

A fact as regarded by the infantile mind is a small matter as compared with the same fact as thought by the scientific mind. For the fact is at first a little fragment broken off from a long chain of causal action by the feeble mind of infant or savage. But experience keeps making additions to the fact before and after it. It places links of causation before it and links of effect after it, and thus it grows to be a big fact.

Now the child who can grasp only so small a piece of fact, or in other words, whose facts are so small in compass, goes by external appearances and does not see the essential nature of the fact. The child sees the gun with which his father shoots. He thinks that a stick cut out in the external resemblance of a gun will do what the gun does. The essential things about the gun are the steel tube, the powder and shot, the method of exploding the powder, etc. The child's fact contains none of these items. His fact is a symbolic fact, rather than a real fact. We see that to get at a reality, we must have the chain of causality.

Play undertakes to reproduce the external semblance of the fact without the causal chain that makes the essential element in it. The farmer mows with a steel scythe and cuts grass. The child mows with a wooden scythe and cuts no grass. He merely makes believe to cut grass.

To illustrate this process of growth from symbolic to prosaic reality, consider the chain of causality involved in thinking the familiar object bread. This illustration is used by Professor Noiré. Going backward toward the origin of bread, we have the successive steps of baking, kneading the dough, mixing the meal or flour with yeast, lard, butter, and other ingredients, the grinding of the grain and sifting of the meal; the harvesting of the grain with all its details of cutting, binding sheaves, threshing, etc.; the earlier processes of plowing, harrowing, sowing the grain; and its growth dependent on rain and sunshine. Each of these links in the chain has side relations to other chains of causality; for example, the yeast put into the bread connects it with hops or some other ferment or effervescent, the lard connects bread with the series of ideas involved in pork raising; the salt, with salt manufacture; the baking, with the structure of the oven and the fuel. So long as anything is not yet understood, the word expressing it is a partially blind symbol.

The retrograde series toward the origin is matched with a progressive series toward the future use of the bread. There are the preparation for the table, the set meals, the eating and digestion, the sustenance of life, the strength acquired, the work accomplished by means of it, etc. The omission of the causal nexus characterizes symbolic thinking in the sense of that word as I employ it here.

It is true that we commonly use the word "*symbolic*" in a

more restricted sense, namely, the use of the material object to represent the invisible spiritual object.

The child begins by perceiving sense objects and mimics them in play. Gradually he discovers their chains of causality. Each object is in a chain of causality; it is derived from something else, and, when it changes, it passes on into something else.

The child learns to think more and more adequately the object which he sees. He learns to add to it a larger and larger extent of the chain of causality that belongs to it.

III Geography as it is understood by the geographical societies has a narrower signification than geography as introduced into the elementary school. It is used by the former to indicate primarily the production of the elements of difference on the earth's surface—differences of land, water and climate—the differences that arise from the upheaval of land and from the erosion of land and its transference to the ocean, and also the differences that arise by the interaction of land and water, such as rivers, lakes, bays, straits, seas and oceans. Besides the production of such elements of difference, geography includes for the scientific geographer the effects or influences that the peculiarities of the earth's surface have upon the life of man, such for example as relate to food and clothing, their need and their supply, and such as are calculated in the course of ages to affect his physique and produce a distinct race of men, black, yellow, red or white. In other words the scientific geographer as a specialist includes anthropology with his study of the earth-surface and its plants and animals.

But geography in the elementary school finds it necessary to go farther and include a study of the elements of civilization in so far as they are matters that characterize localities. The geographical distribution of civilization is in fact of the first importance to the child, the youth and the man and hence has come to the front in all teaching of geography from that of the early Greeks who taught the second book of Homer's *Iliad* and made the children learn the localities of the Grecian tribes, down to the latest teaching of geography which spends most of its time on the habitats of three or four leading nations.

Geography in the elementary school, therefore, deals much with the location and growth of cities—the transformations of nature by man for his purposes. First he transforms nature for dwelling purposes, by the building of cities, villages and farm

houses; secondly, he transforms it for the purpose of intercommunication by making roads, bridges, tunnels, viaducts, railways, and canals; and, thirdly, he transforms land by adapting it to crops, by fencing, by draining, by cultivation, by irrigation, and by connecting it with the world market by internal and foreign commerce. In other words, school geography deals not only with the geographical features in which natural conditions are seen to affect the "physical character of man" but also with the transformations which man makes upon nature with his cities, railways, canals, and agriculture.

By reason of this difference in definitions the school geography is likely to be hindered if it adopts the literature of the geographical society without some modification. The region of the north pole is as of much interest geographically as the region about New York, or London, or Paris, or any great center of civilization. But the child in the school ought to be interested chiefly in the geographical centers of population. The centers that are connected with the history of great events are also, other things being equal, of more importance than the territory that has not yet been made the theatre of civilization.

The emphasis which school geography lays upon the connection of places with human history suggests an educational heresy that infects to some extent the pedagogy of this branch of study. The votaries of geography sometimes become so much interested in the physical process of action and reaction in earth, air, fire and water, that they turn away in disgust from the transformation which man has made upon the earth's surface, and especially from that part of geography which relates to the lines and boundaries of political divisions. They get so much respect for the inanimate forces of nature that to them the rational forces of man seem arbitrary and unworthy of serious attention. This gives rise to the literature of geography for geography's sake that reminds one of those writings that are said to belong to poetry for poetry's sake.

Moreover there is a tendency on the part even of those who have given most attention to the physical elements and forces to overrate their influence upon civilization. They seek to explain, as did Mr. Buckle, the development of the institutions of society by climate, fertility of soil, picturesque scenery, earthquakes, and such matters, which are thought to have a controlling effect in determining the character of the populations of countries.

This view makes geography in some sense a substitute for

history. If historic development is an effect of geographic conditions and forces, it is of course a mistake to consider history an evolution proceeding through a growing sense of the ideal of freedom and its realization in theory and practice. The great German who said that the world history is the progress of man into consciousness of freedom must have been mistaken. The evolution of national ideas beginning with Eastern Asia, where the state is everything and the individual next to nothing, moving westward to the nations of Europe and America, where the state is great in proportion to the greatness of its individuals—this progress certainly must be an illusion because it can not be explained from geography. This bouleversement of ideas on the part of enthusiasts in the study of physical processes is enough to prove that geography is not a good substitute for history.

History shows the inward development of social and political ideas and their realization in institutions. The geographical conditions furnish no more than the mode of manifestation. Man reacts against nature and transforms it into an instrument of expression and a means of realizing his rational self. Geography does not deal with the evolution of human freedom except in so far as it shows the results of that freedom in the modifications which man has made to adapt nature to his purposes. The cold freezes the water into snow, but it does not make the Eskimo's snow hut. The river divides the populations of a country, but it does not make the bridge, the ferry, and the tunnel that unite them.

Specialization in science leads to the division of aggregates of knowledge into narrow fields for closer observation. This is all right. But in the course of study for the common school it is proper and necessary that the human interest should always be kept somewhat in advance of the physical interest.

THE OLD SCHOOL AND THE NEW; OUR DUTY TO THE NEW TIME

PRESIDENT CHARLES W. DABNEY, UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

This noble assembly should give all friends of education great encouragement. It is significant that many of the best men and women from our states should meet together year after year for the purpose of discussing the interests of the schools, and it is

more significant still that the eleventh annual meeting of the Southern Educational Association should be held in the historic city of Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, the most characteristically southern of these states. Columbia never fails to delight its guests with its beautiful hospitality; but this splendid audience of Columbia people signifies more than welcome and hospitality, it shows that there is here an interest in what Jefferson called the "holy cause" of education, which fills our hearts with splendid hopes, not only for Carolina, but for our entire country. And this gathering of representative teachers from the schools and colleges all over the South, held during the blessed Christmastide, the time usually devoted to the sweet things of home and children—does it not mean that the questions here discussed touch the dearest interests of those homes, the welfare of the precious children who make those homes and this land so loved?

We will all agree, to begin with, that every interest of our dear southland and its homes waits on the education of its people. Industrial development waits for more captains of industry, superintendents of factories and skilled workmen. The natural resources of the southern states are great and varied; capital in abundance is ready for investment in them; only men are wanted who can plan, organize and direct. Good government in town and state and intelligent action in national affairs wait upon educated voters. Pettifogging politicians and selfish demagogues will continue to control our legislative and county governments until a majority of the voters can think for themselves. What, for example, is the cause of the present complete isolation, of the almost entire exclusion from the councils of the nation, of a dozen states which for a long time supplied nearly all of the great statesmen who, like Pinckney, Calhoun, and McDuffie, directed the affairs of this country, unless it is the political ignorance of their successors, illustrated persistently by the pursuit of absurd financial theories and antiquated political hobbies? The only remedy for the political situation in the South is to be found in public education. Even religion waits upon general education. How else can we interpret the action of our enlightened and progressive churches, many of which are now actively at work raising their twentieth century educational funds? Evidently they think that the further extension, purification, and strengthening of religion in the South depends also on general education. So with

commerce and trade, the professions and business all call for more and better educated workers.

The colleges for liberal, and institutions for technical, education as well, wait for preparatory schools. During 1899 there were in all collegiate and graduate courses in liberal arts only 16,351 students in the southern states, against 30,741 in the north central states, with the same population, but where they have public high schools. A system of public education is a pyramid; the primary schools are the foundation, the secondary schools and high schools, the normal schools, the technical schools, and the colleges carry up the structure step by step, and the university is the capstone. Our system of education in the old South, so far as we had one, was a Greek column; the university was a beautifully carved capital of classic design, supported by a slender column of literary colleges and academies, which stood upon a narrow and unsubstantial base of private schools.

Every discussion of the public school question in the South must begin with a reference to the old social system. Society in the southern states before the civil war was, as we know, divided into two clearly defined parts, the aristocratic planters—the lords of the land—and the humble owners of small farms—the “poor whites” they were called by contrast. The former class were found chiefly in the midland cotton belt and the lowlands of the South, while the small farmers occupied the hill country. The two classes mingled to a very limited extent in the Piedmont region, but, wherever the poor white man drifted down into the low country and came into contact with the blacks he descended to a level but little above them. It was in the mountains and the mountain valleys that the white man of moderate means maintained himself in the greatest independence and influence. Having few towns of any size and very few manufactures, there was in the old South no large class of whites between these two.

The educational system corresponded of course to this organization of society. In the larger cities were a few excellent private schools, and many tutors were employed in the families of the wealthy planters. A number of excellent colleges, like the old South Carolina college, trained the young men chiefly of the planter class and made of them a race of preachers, teachers, lawyers, statesmen, soldiers, poets, and orators too, who have been scarcely equaled and never surpassed in any country. Few coun-

tries have produced the equals of Pinckney and Rutledge, of McDuffie and Calhoun, of Thornwell and Preston. But no southern state had a complete system of public education, and the so-called "free schools" were supposed to be for the benefit of the poor.

As the great universities of Europe grew out of monastic and cathedral schools, so our older southern colleges were nearly all the children of the churches. The preachers were in the early days almost the only learned men, and therefore the only teachers. In the case of the country schools the good old dominie, most often a Scotch Presbyterian minister, taught the children during the week, as he did the grown folks on Sunday, and thus laid at the same time the foundations of both religion and education. The institutions for higher education were nearly all founded by the presbyteries, associations, or conventions of the different denominations, and the most learned and devout of their clergy became the instructors. With few exceptions, all of our prominent institutions were founded upon, or grew out of, church colleges. Such was the origin of William and Mary, Hampden-Sydney, and Washington and Lee, in Virginia; Davidson in North Carolina; Washington in Tennessee; and the state universities of North Carolina and Tennessee.

The founders and early professors of these colleges were among the noblest men of their day. In the true spirit of consecration, they gave their lives to the cause of sound learning and the greater glory of God. Patient, self-sacrificing, and long-suffering, they had difficulties to overcome of which we know nothing. We, the teachers of today can draw, not only encouragement, but real profit, from a study of the trials, the privations, the long-protracted struggles, and the unrequited labors of these pioneers in education who read Virgil and Homer with their pupils in the wild woods of the Savannah, and taught geometry from figures drawn on the ground. Grand heroes were these men, like John Brown, the founder of Liberty Hall, now Washington and Lee University; David Caldwell, who, as the master of Guilford Academy, in North Carolina, educated the men who founded the commonwealth and provided for a state university in its first constitution. Moses Waddel, I will venture to say, educated more great men at Willington in South Carolina in a given period than any one man ever did before. Calhoun and McDuffie, Crawford and Pettigru, Gilmore and Legare, Noble and Wardlaw,

Collier and Longstreet—what a glorious service it was to train men like these!

One lingers with delight over the descriptions of these old schools. Says Longstreet's William Mitten, of Waddel's school: The houses were little log huts, with chimneys built of sticks, chinked with mud. "The students built these themselves. The whole formed 'a street shaded by majestic oaks, and composed entirely of log huts, varying in size from six to sixteen feet square. The street was about forty yards wide and the houses, ten or twelve, ranged on the sides, either built by the students themselves or by architects hired by them.' The common price was five dollars for a house, 'on front row, water-proof, and easily chinked. In the suburbs were several other buildings of the same kind erected by literary recluses, who could not endure the din of the city at play-time. At the head of the street stood the academy, differing in nothing from the other buildings but in size, and the number of its rooms.' There were two rooms in this, one for the primary pupils, while 'the larger was the recitation room of Dr. Waddel himself, the prayer room, court room, and general convocation room for all matters concerning the school. It was without seats and just large enough to contain one hundred and fifty boys standing erect, close pressed, and leave a circle of six feet diameter at the door for jigs and cotillions at the teacher's regular soirees every Monday.

Says Ramsay, the historian of South Carolina: "In this sylvan retreat 'gathered students from all parts of this and the adjoining states, and the wild woods of the Savannah resounded with the echoes of Homer and Virgil, Cicero and Horace.' Under the wide-spreading branches in summer, and in their huts in winter, the students diligently studied, changing their occupations at the sound of the horn, and repairing to the house for recitation when called for by the name of 'the Virgil class, the Homer class,' or by the name of the author they were studying. 'In a moment they appear before their preceptor, and with order and decorum recite their lessons—are critically examined in grammar and syntax—the construction of sentences—the formation of verbs—the antiquities of Greece and Rome—the history and geography of the ancients, illustrative of the author whose works they recite; and are taught to relish his beauties and enter into his spirit. Thus class succeeds to class without the formality of definite hours

for study or recitation till all have recited. In the presence of the students assembled, a solemn and appropriate prayer, imploring the eternal in their behalf, begins and ends the exercises of each day.'

"Far removed from the noise and dissipations of the city, the students applied themselves closely to their work. Their life was simple and industrious, and their food was Spartan in its plainness—cornbread and bacon. Instead of gas and students' lamps, they pored over the lessons by the aid of pine torches. At the sound of the horn they retired to bed, except a few adventurous spirits that set out in quest of hen-roosts or to unhinge gates. They rose at dawn and resumed their studies. Instead of playing baseball or football, the boys took their recreation in 'running, jumping, wrestling, playing townball, and bullpen. The big boys hunted squirrels, turkeys, etc., on Saturdays, and 'possums and coons at night.'"

It was my privilege to attend one of the very last of these old schools, left like a relic after the great war. I quote from a previous paper. The church and school house were near together, as the preacher ministered in them both. At the foot of a ridge, covered with forest, and just above the road which followed around a worm fence inclosing a fertile meadow, stood the plain buildings, one large and one small, like the mother and daughter they really were. A plank fence inclosed a plot of ground in the center of which was the square brick church, with white plastered pilasters and columns in front. The school house, or "session house," as it was called from the fact that those "grave and reverend seigniors," the elders, met there, stood in one corner of this inclosure. Two stiles at the front corners of this yard afforded a convenient mounting place for the blushing maidens who usually contrived to spend a long time getting into or out of their black riding skirts, chatting merrily the while with the brown-cheeked fellows who held the horses' bits or helped the little feet find the hidden stirrups—for all the sweethearting had to be confined to the dismounting and the mounting. After the men entered the door on the right and the women that on the left, communication was limited to such stolen glances as the good elders, seated in the "amen" corners could not detect. The preacher thundered at his people from his high white throne until the wicked trembled and the righteous all went to sleep.

But when a protracted meeting came around, what a great

time the boys and girls had during the mid-day recess over the lunch baskets under the trees, or strolling through the woods, or down to the spring, where the tinkling waters dropped into a basin of stone! Those were the grand feast days of the country. When school was suspended, during such a "season of blessing," what a week or two of fresh air was theirs; filled as they were with bright sunshine and sweet smiles; with glorious old hymns, solemn sermons, and earnest prayers! Last of all was that big Sunday when the whole countryside was there and the religious harvest was gathered in. But after it was all over how dreary was the old church, when early Monday morning the boys returned once more to school. How sad were the woods and, without the girls to smile into its waters, how quiet was the tinkling spring! Fortunately for the boys the dominie was so worn out that for a day or two they were allowed to do pretty much what they liked and had plenty of time to think of the sweet girls, the toothsome pies, and other good things the meeting had brought them.

In that square brick, shingle-roofed school house, with three windows, one chimney, and a door, the parson kept school five days in the week and six months in the year. The farms required the boys during the other months. Thither we traveled early each week-day morning on our frisky young colts, or our equally active bare feet, and there, in spite of the pins and paper projectiles, in spite of the pepper or sulphur on the stove and the consequent unexpected recess, in spite of the frostbites in winter and the stone bruises in summer, in spite too of the protracted meetings and the soft eyes of the girls, we learned a little Latin, Greek and arithmetic, and much catechism. Our "patent school furniture" was slab-boards with stick legs, the lower boards to sit on, the higher ones to hold books and to write on. Nobody wanted any charts, globes, or apparatus in those days. There was the boy, the book, the teacher—and the hickory. Anything else would have been in the way.

Our particular dear old parson, although a pretty fair teacher of Latin grammar, according to Ruddiman, and having some knowledge of Greek as far as the Anabasis and the New Testament, had no liking for algebra and geometry, and was, therefore, exceedingly strict with those classes when they came before him. If a boy could not "work it," or "prove it," without his assistance, he was in very great danger of the rod. This may account for the fact that that particular boy learned more geometry and algebra

than anything else. The work was all done at the point of the hickory, so to speak, and as a result the boy who went to this school and tells this tale does not recall that he took any marked interest in anything, unless it was the girls, the colts, and the squirrels. In his opinion the best teacher he had about that time was a kindly old neighborhood loafer who roamed the woods with him, told him of the times of the wild flowers and of the habits of the birds, and taught him to shoot the long rifle. He followed the "natural method" and showed his pupil how to do a thing by doing it.

That was a typical school of the old South; but now the scene changes. Thirty years have passed, and that boy, now a teacher himself, comes to visit once again the scenes of his youthful study and sport and to search for the dear companions of the early days. Alas, all are gone to the South or West except one sturdy fellow who could not learn his Latin and has become the wealthiest farmer in the county. Nearly all the older friends of his childhood rest now in the church yard, surrounded by the stone wall; but the old church and school house stand to remind him of the dear parson and all the other good folks of long ago.

The session house has proved entirely too small for the public school, and is only occupied occasionally now by the pastor and elders when they meet in solemn conclave to discuss the weighty matters of the congregation. A crude new frame building located nearby contains the school of today. It is a square wooden box, supported upon stone piers, with four windows on either side and a door in the end. Within it is as bare and cheerless as it is without. Some patent school desks, cut with penknives and blotched with ink, fill almost the entire floor, and a rusty iron stove occupies the center of the room. The tattered remains of a set of charts stand in a corner, and several maps hang at various angles to the perpendicular upon the grimy walls. A tall, thin old maid, with a hard, sad face and a screeching voice, is trying to keep some fifty or sixty youngsters of all sexes and ages in the path of virtue, if not of knowledge. It is easy to observe that it is a typical country school of a populous and prosperous neighborhood, where the so-called "English branches"—may the English forgive us for using their name so profanely—are taught in the usual way. "Keeping school" defines it better. The old boy could not help thinking, what a poor substitute for the old parson's school, bad as it was!

The glory of the old school was that it trained leaders of men ; a few only, perhaps, but it still made of some of them scholars and of many leaders. The trouble with the new school is that while it gives a smattering of an elementary education to a considerable number, it makes no great men or women. The old school belonged to the period of individualism, the new has yet to be made equal to the needs of modern cooperative society. The principal trouble in the South at the present time is that we have just enough of the public schools in the country to destroy all of the old private schools. This little sketch is introduced here to show what a complete revolution has taken place in all our school work. This revolution was inevitable; it was a part of the great, far-reaching social cataclysm which destroyed in 1865 nearly all our institutions. We are still in the transition stage from the old to the new school and must take our trials philosophically. The old school is gone, the new has yet to be built. The gap between them is a great one; the way across is difficult, but let us take courage and go to work.

Southern teachers should be proud that Thomas Jefferson was the first conspicuous advocate in this country of free education in common schools supported by local taxation as well as of state aid to higher institutions of learning. To him the school house was the fountain head of happiness, prosperity and good government, and education was the "holy cause" to which he devoted the best thought and efforts of his life. According to Jefferson, the objects of the public schools were:

"1 To give to every citizen the information he needs for the transaction of his own business;

"2 To enable him to calculate for himself; and to express and preserve his ideas, his contracts and accounts, in writing;

"3 To improve, by reading, his morals and faculties;

"4 To understand his duties to his neighbors and country, and to discharge with competence the functions confided to him by either;

"5 To know his rights; to exercise with order and justice those he retains; to choose with discretion the fiduciary of those he delegates; and to notice their conduct with diligence, with candor and judgment.

"6 And in general to observe with intelligence and faithfulness all the social relations under which he shall be placed."

Jefferson's educational plan which he prepared for the State

of Virginia provided first "for elementary schools in every county, 'which will place every householder within three miles of a school; district schools which will place every father within a day's ride of a college where he may dispose of his son; a university in a healthy and central situation. In the elementary schools will be taught reading, writing, common arithmetic, and general notions of geography. In the second, ancient and modern languages, etc., mensuration and the elementary principles of navigation, and in the third, all the useful sciences in their highest degree.'

"He laid off every county into districts five or six miles square, called 'hundreds,' the teacher to be supported by the people within that limit; every family to send their children free for three years, and as much longer as they pleased, provided they paid for it; these schools to be under the charge of 'a visitor, who is annually to select the boy of the best genius in the school, whose parents are too poor to give him an education, and send him to a grammar school,' of which twenty were to be erected in different parts of Virginia; 'and of the boys in each grammar school the best is to be selected to be sent to the university free of cost.'"

Where will you find a more complete or better system of public education than this? Jefferson succeeded in founding a state university, but an aristocratic organization of society rendered it impossible for even a Jefferson to induce Virginia to establish a complete system of public schools. Schools for poor children were established in Virginia, as in other southern states, but she had no system of public schools, properly speaking, until the civil war had destroyed her old institutions and so prepared the way.

No one has stated better than Jefferson the argument for public schools. He held that the republic must have an educated citizenship or it will go down. And is it not as true today as it was in Jefferson's time? If an educated citizenship was needed to direct the confederation of 13 little states, how much more necessary is it to govern this vast continental republic, now a world-empire? It is still a new and audacious, yes, an awfully perilous thing we are attempting to do in America to establish an ideal democracy in the midst of a world of monarchies, to call all men to the suffrage and make each a sovereign, to address the Indian, the negro, the mongrel Cuban, and the 80 different races of Filipinos as brethren; to establish a fair distribution of the good things of this world with equal chances for the children of the rich and the poor; to educate 76 millions at home and 20 odd millions

abroad in the principles of a true democracy and in the religion of Jesus Christ—is not this a task to stagger any people?

Many seem to think that our vast resources and the marvelous energy and common sense of our people are sufficient guarantees of our future. Our broad, rich continent, with its ample resources, will be useless for the purposes of civilization, unless the people are educated. Our boasted common sense and unmeasured energy can not save the republic without education. Knowledge, training and an unselfish devotion to the cause of human progress are the only basis of a free government. We must train our youth to think, as well as work, and to love their state and country as well as their own family and church. The scholar must teach to this end, and he must do more than teach, he must stand ready to lead the people. The professional man must come out of the isolation of his office and consider something besides the interests of his own business. The call, my friends, is to every one, but especially to the teacher, to aid in this great work of strengthening and extending American civilization.

This, then, is the problem of public education, not only for the South, but for the whole country; how shall we educate *all the people* for complete living, and for the truest service of their fellow-men?

Our conception of public education has grown very greatly in these last years. It has grown in two ways, first, in content, and secondly, in kind. It now includes every human being; we realize now that all must be educated—every human being has a right to an education. God has a purpose in every soul He sends into the world. The poorest, most helpless infant is not an accident, a few molecules of matter merely, but a “plan of God,” as Phillips Brooks has said, destined to do a definite work in the universe; it is a part of the divine plan of creation, and as such deserves to be trained for its work. This, it seems to me, is the fundamental argument for universal education; that every child has a right to a chance in life, because God made him and made him to do something.

Our conception of education has grown also in kind; it now includes all training which fits the man for better living and service. “That the man of God may be perfect, thoroughly furnished unto all good works,” says St. Paul—not perfect for his own self-satisfaction merely, but perfect for service; and not thoroughly furnished and equipped with every tool required for his

work, merely for the purpose of completeness, as the king's palace is furnished, to be looked at; but thoroughly furnished unto *all good works*. The primary object of education is perhaps to make the man perfect; but the ultimate object is service. And not one kind of service merely as we used to think, or even a few kinds of service, like the four learned professions—law, medicine, teaching and preaching—the only callings for educated boys in the old days, but *all good works*, all professions in life, are the legitimate ends of education. All forms of service are equally honorable. Each profession demands nowadays the trained man. The aim of education, then, is to discover what each person can do and to train him to do it. So we have come to realize that there is no aristocracy in education. There is really no higher education, and no lower education; no primary education and no secondary education, in order of merit; no scientific education and no technical education, properly speaking, for all education should be scientific and all technical in the sense that it is applicable; but only *education*—the all-education of all, the education of all men to do all the work for which God made them.

Our mistake has been in supposing that each one was made of the same metal and could be molded in the same old mold of the classical curriculum. We are come now to know that there are as many molds as there are men, that each human soul is a unique monad—to be trained in accordance with the laws of his own being.

The harmonious and equitable evolution of man does not mean that every man must be educated just like his fellow. The harmony is within each individual. That community is most highly educated in which each individual has attained the maximum of his possibilities in the direction of his own peculiar talents and opportunities. This produces not a Procrustean sameness, but an infinite diversity in purpose and potentiality. The perfect education is one which tunes every string on each human instrument. Each musical instrument must, they tell us, in order to develop the most perfect sounds, be tuned separately by a sympathetic spirit and a skillful hand. A nation of men and women all perfectly educated would be like a grand orchestra of such musical instruments, all perfectly tuned. There are hundreds of instruments and players, and yet each instrument can make its own peculiar music. All are necessary to produce the grand symphony. An orchestra made up entirely of like instruments would be no

orchestra at all. So the life of each man and woman may be a melody, and whether it is the loud-pealing hymn of the cathedral organ, or the soft pleading of the Spanish lover's guitar as he sings his serenade, it makes little difference what instrument each one plays, so he makes music in his life.

Universality and diversity are thus the two principles of education. Each soul has a right to an education, and that education should be in accordance with his God-given nature.

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But we must consider our problem more nearly, and in more detail. Our problem is the education of all the people of the South. First, who are this people? In 1900 these states south of the Potomac and east of the Mississippi contained, in round numbers, 16,400,000 people, 10,400,000 of them white and 6,000,000 black. In these states there are 3,981,000 white and 2,420,000 colored children of school age (5 to 20 years), a total of 6,401,000. They are distributed among the states as follows:

	White	Colored	Total
Virginia	436,000	269,000	705,000
West Virginia	342,000	15,000	357,000
North Carolina	491,000	263,000	754,000
South Carolina	218,000	342,000	560,000
Georgia	458,000	428,000	886,000
Florida	110,000	87,000	197,000
Alabama	390,000	340,000	730,000
Mississippi	253,000	380,000	633,000
Tennessee	590,000	191,000	781,000
Kentucky	693,000	105,000	798,000
Totals	3,981,000	2,420,000	6,401,000

What an army of young people to be educated! How they are marching on! Many of them are already beyond our help; all will be in less than ten years; and still they come marching up from the cradles in American citizenship and so on into eternity!

The important question is, What are we in the South doing for these children? Let us see! Only 60 per cent of them were enrolled in the schools in 1900. The average daily attendance was only 70 per cent of those enrolled. Only 42 per cent are actually at school. One-half of the negroes get no schooling whatever. One white child in five is left wholly illiterate. Careful analysis of the reports of state superintendents showing the attendance

by grades, indicates that the average child, whites and blacks together, who attends school at all stops with the third grade. In North Carolina the average citizen gets only 2.6 years, in South Carolina 2.5 years, in Alabama 2.4 years of schooling, both private and public. In the whole South the average citizen gets only 3 years of schooling of all kinds in his entire life; and what schooling it is! This is the way we are educating these citizens of the republic, the voters who will have to determine the destinies not only of this people but of millions of others beyond the seas. Have we not missionary work enough to do here at our own doors without going to Cuba, Porto Rico, or the Philippines?

But why is it, that the children get so little education? Have we no schools in the country? Yes, but what kind of schools. The average value of a school property in North Carolina is \$180, in South Carolina \$178, in Georgia \$523, and in Alabama \$212. The average salary of a teacher in North Carolina is \$23.36, in South Carolina \$23.20, in Georgia \$27, and in Alabama \$27.50. The schools are open in North Carolina an average of 70.8 days, in South Carolina 88.4, in Georgia 112, and in Alabama 78.3. The average expenditure per pupil in average attendance is, in North Carolina \$4.34, in South Carolina \$4.44, in Georgia \$6.64, and in Alabama \$3.10 per annum. In other words, in these states, in school houses costing an average of \$276 each, under teachers receiving the average salary of \$25 a month, we are giving the children in actual attendance five cents worth of education a day for 87 days only in the year. This is the way we are schooling the children. Is it any wonder that they do not attend school when we provide no more for them?

Now behold the results in the adult people! Figures for illiteracy are a poor index of the condition of the people as regards education, but they certainly signify much. Comparing the percentages of white illiterates over 21 years of age in the southern states since 1840, we find that while they increased during and immediately after the civil war, they have decreased very slowly since. These percentages in typical southern states have just gotten back to where they were in 1850. In other words, among the whites of the South we have as large a proportion of illiterate men over 21 years of age as we had fifty years ago. In a half century we have made no progress in lifting the dark cloud of ignorance from our own race. You will be startled, as I was, at this statement; but hear: In 1900 the percentage of illiterates

among males over 21, native whites, mind you, the sons of native parents, was, in Virginia 12.5, in North Carolina 19, in South Carolina 12.6, in Georgia 12.1, in Alabama 14.2, in Tennessee 14.5, and in Kentucky 15.5. In Mississippi it is only 8.3, a marked difference directly traceable to their better schools, established some twelve years ago. Notice that these are not negroes, but grown white men, the descendants of the original southern stock.

Such is the situation that confronts us. Such is the problem we must solve. How shall we do it? How shall the people be educated, and so qualified for better service to their country?

A noble work has been done in the South by the churches and benevolent societies, but they can never do it all. We hail them, and bid them God-speed. Horace Mann said, "Every follower of God and friend of mankind will find the only sure means of carrying forward the particular reform to which he is devoted in universal education. In whatever department of philanthropy he may be engaged, he will find that department to be only a segment of the great circle of beneficence of which universal education is the center and circumference." Every agency for the advancement of human interests may and should take part in the work of education; but the state is the only agency which can reach all the people. The state should encourage individuals and societies of all kinds to aid in the work, but after all it must take upon itself the great burden of education. If education is the only method of preparing people for citizenship, if it is a preventive of crime, if it is the best method of increasing their productivity and so increasing the wealth of the state, as we all believe, then the state must educate. If this is true, everything the state possesses should be dedicated to the cause of education first. As each one holds all his property in trust for the good of all, so the state, made up of us all, holds all its property in trust for the benefit of all its members. It is the commonwealth, the wealth of all.

What then constitutes the commonwealth? The men and women of today? No, as powerful as they are they do not constitute the whole commonwealth. The fathers who won our liberties and the mothers who trained our great men? No; as brave and as good as they were, they do not form the commonwealth of today. What, then, constitutes the commonwealth? The successive generations of men and women taken collectively, past, present and all to come—they constitute the commonwealth. As the past had its duty to us, so we have a duty to all who follow us.

All the property of the commonwealth is pledged for the education of all its youth up to such a point as will save them from poverty and vice, and prepare them for the adequate performance of all their social and civic duties. To rob the children of today, or those of the future, of the opportunity for an education is, then, the greatest crime of which the state can be guilty.

MODERN ART EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Probably no subject in the public school curriculum has undergone more decided changes in its aims and methods within the last fifteen years than drawing. From the purely imitative work of the past to the creative drawing of the present is a long step. Formerly the results on paper were the only standard of success, now success is measured by the effect produced upon the mental, moral and physical well-being of the child. In order to judge fairly the value of modern methods of teaching drawing, it is necessary to understand just what its advocates are trying to accomplish.

There are many who still believe that drawing is taught in the public schools for the purpose of making artists of the few pupils gifted with a particular talent for art. The truly gifted (if there be any in the class) will probably rise to eminence without the aid of this instruction. If only a few pupils are to be benefited by the introduction of drawing into the curriculum the good done to them will scarcely outweigh the injustice to the many who receive no benefit and yet are required to devote the same time and attention to it.

Others again take a more practical, if not a less one-sided view of drawing, when they assume, that the instruction should be given mainly for the purpose of enabling pupils to illustrate their lessons in science, history, geography, etc. Drawing should be an aid to these branches, but this is not all. The results of a really liberal art instruction will show in many ways.

In order to appreciate what is being done or to teach drawing successfully one must view it from a plane high enough to be able to see all sides of the question. To be sure that the results

of this teaching are satisfactory, one must be able to follow it in its effects upon the lives of the pupils after they have gone from the school-room into the world of domestic, industrial, commercial or professional life. While drawing should lay a strong foundation for further art study, it must be turned to account for all the pupils in the greater ease and facility with which they express their thoughts with brush and pencil. If our purpose be to train the pupils' powers of observation, memory, and expression, it is not necessary to teach them directly how to illustrate a particular experiment in physics or how to draw a given map.

The aim should be to develop power, then let it be applied when and where it may be needed. To make the training successful the individuality of the child must be considered, his creative power must be recognized and by teaching him to see beauty, he should be led to give expression to it. If a love for the beautiful is once awakened it will find expression in ways, other than drawing. It will manifest itself in the greater care with which the pupils arrange their written work on paper, in their personal appearance, in their desire for order, neatness and beauty in their surroundings, both at home and at school. It will also reveal itself in an increased pleasure in nature, in a greater love of beautiful pictures and in a more orderly and logical method of expression.

We must keep in mind that this mental and aesthetic training is to the average child of far more value than a purely technical or scientific study of art. A child can learn to copy a picture without receiving any of these benefits from the instruction, but on the other hand, if the training has been thorough and the child placed in possession of the fundamental principles of expression, he can apply his knowledge in any direction.

The keynote of art instruction in the public schools of the past, was imitation, while in those of the present time it is creation.

We must consider carefully the ultimate good we hope to accomplish and also the condition of the child's mind when he enters school. The lessons must be adapted to his understanding, they must not be based upon the supposition that at the age of six or seven years he is endowed with any special love of beauty or is able to appreciate any very lofty sentiments. Many of the world's most beautiful pictures, those which portray high ideals and are beautiful in execution are so far above the child's present sym-

pathy and powers of intelligent comprehension as to awaken no response in him. It is only in the light of our past experience and present knowledge that we can interpret that which is presented to us. If we place a picture of the Madonna or a copy of Sargents' beautiful frieze, *The Law and the Prophets*, or representations of other classical subjects before a class of young children we should not feel disappointed because of its failure to interest them. Give the class a picture which illustrates happy family life or a picture which calls forth in the children a feeling of sympathy for dumb animals, and see how quickly they will respond.

While very young children are not ready for direct teaching of the beautiful, deep impressions are made on them either for good or bad by environment. Care should be taken at all times to surround them with beautiful and refining influences, but these must be in keeping with their powers of appreciation. Gaudy pictures or poor book illustrations do as much to dull the artistic sense as bad literature does to weaken the moral nature of the child. How often children are given pictures and picture-books that are pernicious in their effects and this by people who, if they realized the harm coming from it, would not do so for any consideration. Now in this time of inexpensive, but good illustrations and reproductions of pictures, care is needed only in the selection of books or pictures to make them of real value to the child.

Drawing is not doing all that it should do for the children unless its influence is being exerted on both teachers and parents for more refined and elevated surroundings in the school and in the home. It is often very gratifying to see how quickly children do respond to these influences but this will not be the result unless the effort is first made from the child's standpoint.

Children are interested in the story side of life. Stories in which people and things come into relationship and in which something happens, prove most successful in appealing to their imagination, hence illustrating such stories seems to be the best place at which to take up the drawing. We find that children are much more interested in drawing a picture illustrating Jack and Jill in their well known trip "up the hill to get a pail of water" and the dire calamity which befell them as they were returning, than in representing the pail alone or even the hillside.

If the habit is formed early in life of using drawing as a

means of expression and is continued through subsequent training, the pupils will arrive at a degree of proficiency where they can make really good drawings before they have even thought of the possibility of failure. If a class of grown people or even older pupils were, without previous training, asked to illustrate some of the subjects that little children delight in drawing, they would be appalled. Even if they could be persuaded to attempt it, the consciousness of almost certain failure would keep them from doing their best.

If then we are to teach drawing as a means of expression, we must begin as Stanley Hall tells us, "in the unconscious, unfearing days of childhood, when there is ignorance to try, and courage to succeed." Children draw for the sake of the story and are themselves very literal in their interpretation of it. If any departure from the facts is made by a member of the class or is even suggested by the teacher, the children will criticise it at once. I remember a little girl making a drawing to illustrate, "The Old Woman Who Lived in a Shoe." The child had placed the sole of the shoe so high on the paper that there was not room for the top. I suggested making a slipper instead of the shoe. "Why, I can't," she said, "the story says it was a shoe." Numberless illustrations of this kind could be given to show how tenaciously children hold to the facts.

Children are just as ready to illustrate personal experiences by drawings as they are to reproduce a story. If a class is asked to show by a drawing, What did you see on the way to school this morning? or What did mother do to help you get ready for school? there will be many ideas expressed and no hesitation shown in doing so.

Not long ago I heard a little girl called upon to tell the "Story of Pocahontas." She began in a slow, roundabout way. The teacher tried to hurry her, when she said, "Do let me draw it, then I can tell you everything in a minute that way." "Do you want to draw it on paper or on the blackboard?" asked the teacher. "On the blackboard," promptly answered the child, "if I put it there, I can tell the story to everyone." She went to the board and by a few rapid sketches, pictured the most important events.

Harsh or thoughtless criticism at an early period in the work will destroy that self-confidence without which no one can do his best and which, when once lost, can never be wholly restored. The feeling of sympathy and understanding which exists between

teacher and pupil, when the teacher is a ready interpreter of these childish efforts, can often be made a lasting influence for good in the child's life.

It is sometimes urged that this free expression in drawing retards the progress of artistic rendering, as the pupils are satisfied with conventional representations of people and things. This might be true if the drawing was limited to this particular phase of the work, yet even this kind of drawing affords many opportunities for teaching incidentally, principles of proportion and perspective, that could not be taught directly at this age. Some stories lend themselves more readily than others to this kind of teaching. The story of the three bears is a lesson in proportion.

In the representation of the appearance of things, children are very apt to depart from the truth, and sometimes insist on it. I was once teaching a class where our effort was to give a literal representation of the landscape as seen from the window. It was a cold day in winter with fully twelve inches of snow on the ground and a leaden sky above, from which more snow was threatening to fall. One little girl made the sky a bright blue. Thinking to help her correct her mistake, I sent her to the window to look more carefully. Is the sky blue? I asked her. "No," she said, "but it looks as though it ought to be blue." "Why don't you make those apple trees green, with blossoms on them?" I asked. "Because it's winter," she replied. I allowed the blue sky to remain. Did I make a mistake? I think not. She was truthful in representing the spirit of a winter landscape. The sky could have been blue, and so representing it merely showed that her love for bright colors was stronger than the impression made by the chill gray of the sky. In the words of a prominent educator, we must study the child and step by step lead him from his world to the one we hope to create for him. This view of modern art education is not the result of visionary enthusiasts who know little of actual conditions in the public schools, but has been evolved from the experiences of the regular classroom lessons; neither does it require a teacher with special art training to carry out successfully these ideas. Of course all the technical knowledge a teacher possesses will help her greatly, but it is not indispensable, if she is but willing to work both for and with her pupils under the leadership of the supervisor.

Experiments made recently by teachers and supervisors of drawing are proving that children are capable of leaving crude

line drawings for a more artistic form of expression very much earlier than was at first supposed. It is also found that, once they become interested in making pictures as well as in telling the story, they are much more open to impressions from other pictures. They look at a picture much more critically, as one little boy told me, "to see how it was done."

Last October we took up in Charleston for the first time in the primary grades very simple landscape drawing. We began by observations from the windows, noticing that always when we looked out of doors we could see the earth and the sky, and that when there was nothing to interrupt the view we could see the line where they seemed to meet. We then made very simple pictures in which there was nothing but earth and sky. We tried to see how far back into the picture we could make our horizon appear. We then located other objects with reference to this line, also tried the effect of raising or lowering the horizon line and of making it straight or curved. We placed trees, a house and even people in the picture trying to make some things look near, others far away.

Now when a child gives distance or perspective in his picture, by placing the far object higher on the paper than he does the near one—and when he also makes the far one smaller, it is the result of a conscious effort on his part to express distance.

Children would soon have tired of this technical training had not the story element been introduced to relieve the monotony. We are careful for this purpose to select a story that really requires a background of forest, field or hillside as a proper setting, then we interweave the story and landscape so as to keep up the interest in what is an oft repeated effort so far as the landscape principles are concerned.

Little Red Riding Hood

Or

"There was a field that waiting lay
All hard and brown and bare,
There was a thrifty farmer came
And fenced it in with care,"

are types of the selections we make.

All stories do not lend themselves readily to this kind of illustration. Some require a quick, sketchy line drawing, others involve too great a knowledge of perspective, others again re-

quire the shifting of the scenery so frequently that we pass them by.

Some stories are better told in black and white, others, again, are better in color.

Story telling with paper and scissors is one of the most popular methods with children, though some people complain that such work is lacking in artistic value. We believe that while it has its limitations from an artistic standpoint, it can teach many underlying principles of art. Educationally it is of the greatest value, especially in the primary grades. In the first place the children love to cut and because of this love for it they become completely absorbed. Very seldom does the child's attention wander, if it does failure is so sure to follow that it does not often occur a second time. When he is cutting, so perfectly are mind and body working in unison that it develops the power of concentrated effort. The habit once formed will be carried into other lines of study. Cutting also develops the power of thinking consecutively. If a child wishes to cut a tree, or any other object he must think around the outline while cutting it; this requires a very clear mental conception of the story and of the forms involved. Before the paper is cut at all he must have in mind just how it will look when finished. Every cut counts, while in drawing, if one line does not give the desired result perhaps another one will. There can be no uncertainty or experimenting in a successful cutting; one false cut or careless slip of the scissors and the picture is really spoiled beyond the possibility of repairing the damage. It cultivates the habit of perseverance. I have known of children cutting the same story seven or eight times before they were satisfied to leave it.

The cutting leads to a search for essentials and to omitting unimportant details; this corrects what is often a serious fault in drawing. It also makes children more alert for pictures. One teacher tells me that the pupils in her room frequently interrupt a history or reading lesson to say that they see a picture. If the habit of seeing a picture clearly, could be well established in early life it would afford additional pleasure in reading or recalling events.

This particular form of expression is not suited to pupils after their other training in drawing has led them to feel the lack of perspective in the cutting. While the lessons in drawing tend

to give expression to distance, color, light and shade, cutting of necessity is limited to a flat representation of the picture. When children realize this and are no longer satisfied with the results, it is time to discontinue cutting. Usually the cutting and drawing can be carried on together throughout the primary grades.

It is often a matter of surprise that anything so difficult as life drawing is attempted anywhere in a public school art course, especially so when it is introduced in the primary grades. No drawing is really good in which life and action are not manifest. Whether it be the crude efforts of a child of six or the work of an art student, there must be this quality if our interest is to be aroused. If it is lacking no amount of beauty of line or color can make up for the deficiency.

Technical training will be of value later, but, first of all, try for the spirit of the pose. We tell the children not to bother to represent the trimming on the dress or the buttons on the shoes, but rather to show in the picture what the child is doing.

This quality of action is more easily acquired when the mind is single to the one purpose of telling something than it is in later years when technical difficulties sometimes prevent free expression.

While thus far I have dwelt upon the story side of drawing and of the necessity for studying the child in order to begin on his level, I hope I shall not be misunderstood as undervaluing serious study, but so much depends upon securing the interest and cooperation of children that we must necessarily start at the point where we can secure them.

Each year throughout school life the drawing should assume more and more the serious aspect of work. In this the pupils readily cooperate with the teacher when once they have begun in the right way. Type forms are studied for the sake of a better knowledge of form, for perspective and for light and shade. If the pupil is really interested, he will bear criticism without flinching.

The planning of the outlines, constituting the directions for the lessons in drawing, is one of the most important features of the supervisor's work. It is said that "to know how to suggest is the great art of teaching; to attain it, we must learn to read the childish soul as we might a piece of music, then by simply changing the key, we keep up the attraction and vary the song."

While the work should be arranged with special reference to the gradual progress from grade to grade, the general plan is the same throughout the entire course.

Briefly stated it is this: When children enter school in the autumn fresh from the outdoor life of the summer vacation their impressions of nature and their sympathy for it are stronger than at any other time. Partly because of this and partly because nature herself is most lavish with her gifts at this season we take up the autumn work with nature and landscape drawing. In the primary grades the work is suggestive or illustrative, while in the upper grades there is as much outdoor sketching as possible and the study of values and space relations is considered.

In all grades the landscape drawing for the sake of the landscape very frequently gives way for landscape drawing as an accessory to the illustration or the pose. Mary with her little lamb or Priscilla and John Alden are much more interesting figures when seen against a background of trees and green grass than when standing alone against the white paper.

The seasons with their ever-varying aspects of nature, with their holidays and characteristic sports, form topics for many lessons.

As the autumn advances we gradually take up the more serious work of the year. It is pleasant to see with what willingness pupils often apply themselves to constructive drawing and with what diligence they study the requisite problems when the work is to culminate in a pretty Christmas gift for parent or friend.

Applied design as such is studied and is based on a knowledge of historic ornament; frequently this subject can be correlated with geography or history.

Illustrating compositions is an important feature of the work, introducing it at any time during the year when it promises to be most advantageous to the class.

In the spring, with the return of flowers and better opportunities for outdoor study, we again give our attention to landscape and nature drawing.

If the work of the winter has been in the right direction, the drawing in the spring will show a great improvement over that of the preceding autumn.

If we are working in the right way, each lesson will show a slight advance over the former one. Unless this be true, the

interest which we have aroused will have an unfavorable effect upon the children. They must be helped to an inner consciousness of increased ability to do something better than they ever did it before. Every lesson is a decided gain or loss to the pupils.

Correct habits of working and development of power are necessary, then—

"Step by step leads bad to good
Without halting, without rest
Lifting better up to best."

THE LITERARY STUDY OF THE BIBLE—SUMMARY

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OF PENNSYLVANIA

There are many persons who fail to appreciate fully the beauty and significance of the Bible because they do not consider the literary form in which the subject-matter has been cast by the various writers. To understand a literary production of any kind we must know something of its surroundings, and we must understand its allusions and references. Shakespeare assumes new meaning to the man who understands the peculiarities of Elizabethan English, but the allusions to events well known to audiences of Shakespeare's time are usually lost on the average reader of today. Literary criticism and literary study do not consist in attempts to appraise judicially the value of the book under consideration; they consist rather in an effort to gain some clear conception of the meaning of that book. The version of the Bible most commonly known today is the King James version of 1611 which is, in many respects, superior to previous translations, but in no respect more so than in being the first translation which really seems to have taken into account the fact that the Books of the Bible are organic wholes, and not collections of fragments. Almost all of the Psalms are to be regarded as complete poems on a definite subject, and should be so read. The division into verse and chapter, although venerable with age, is really at times an obstacle in the way of the Bible reader, for the tendency to respect the divisions arbitrarily made results not infrequently in reading the Bible without paying due regard to the sequence of thought.

There are many instances in which the thought is divided by the beginning of a new verse, and in some cases the division of chapters has resulted in similar violence to the development of the writer's meaning. The Schoolmen of the Middle Ages used texts of Scripture as subjects for discussion, and disregarded in many cases the connection of a particular text with its setting. The Revised Version of the English Bible is an advance over the King James version in that the divisions of verses and chapters are relegated to the margin for purposes of convenient reference, and the text is printed continuously in the way in which it should be read. A notable difference also between the Revised Version and the King James version is the translation of books and poems as wholes. A concrete example of this will be found in the 28th chapter of Job, as given in the King James version and in the Revised Version. In the latter, the translators have recognized clearly in their translation the fact that the whole chapter is to be interpreted in the light of the opening verse, which tells us, that "there is a mine for the silver, and a place for gold where they fine it." In the succeeding verses the personal pronoun refers not to God but to the miner, who is working in his shaft beneath the surface of the ground to bring forth precious stones and precious metals. The thought of the chapter is that while there is a mine out of which a man may dig precious stones and gold, there is no mine out of which he can get wisdom, God alone knowing where wisdom is to be found. It will be seen on examining this wonderful chapter that intelligent readers of the Bible must always take into consideration the general idea of which a particular verse may be only a partial expression. If we ignore the general idea of the miner in reading the 28th chapter of Job, we find that many of the statements are unintelligible. Other instances might be mentioned in which ignorance of the enveloping idea has led to curious misinterpretations of Bible statements.

Examine the Book of Psalms, and observe that as printed in the Revised Version, it is made up of five separate collections of sacred poetry, the end of each collection being distinctly marked by a doxology. Observe also the fact that the compilers of these five separate books made their selections from the works of a considerable number of different poets, of whom David was the most important. About one-half of the 150 poems composing the Book of Psalms are ascribed to David, the remainder being either by other authors, whose names are given, or anonymous. Of the

poems by poets other than David, the most remarkable groups are those written by the Korahites and the Songs of Asaph. A study of the work of these poets will show differences of literary style similar to differences which may be found between poets of more recent times. If we examine the Psalms carefully, we will find that in some cases the historical setting of the poem helps us to an understanding of its meaning. This is notably the case with a number of the Psalms of David.

One of the most beautiful in the whole collection is that which is numbered twenty-nine. It is beautiful in itself, but when we consider that the poet had in mind one of the most impressive phenomena of nature, namely, a thunder-storm, we are in a position to understand the progress and development of thought. The storm, noticed at first in the distance with the low mutterings of thunder, approaches nearer and nearer, and finally, after breaking in all its fury upon Lebanon, passes rumbling away. The succession of events in the progress of a storm and the quiet which succeeds such a storm, are all of them expressed in the 29th Psalm. From these illustrations it will be seen that the underlying thought must always be considered in the interpretation of such writings.

Turning now to a consideration of some of the dramatic situations presented to us in the Bible, let us look at the story of the Prophet Nathan who, after David's sin in causing the death of Uriah and taking Bath-Sheba to wife, was sent by Jehovah to rebuke David for what he had done. If Nathan had gone directly to the King with an open rebuke, the real object of his mission would probably not have been accomplished. Instead of doing this, he approaches reverently, and begins to narrate the touching and beautiful story of the poor man and the ewe lamb. As the details of this story of injustice are set forth one by one, we can imagine the wrath of the King, which finally reaches its climax in the words, "The man that hath done this thing shall surely die." Nowhere in literature is a more striking and more powerful dramatic scene than that which must have ensued when Nathan, fixing his eyes on King David, calmly said, "Thou art the man." We should never forget that the language of the Bible is literary, and that literary interpretation is often necessary to bring out the spiritual meaning.

A second example, this time from the New Testament, will serve further to illustrate the point that I am trying to make. When St. Paul visited Athens he found a people highly intellectual

and, as regards religious affairs, quite disposed to welcome new ideas. Picture to yourself the scene on Mars Hill when St. Paul made that wonderful address to the Athenians. He knew of their faults, of their idolatry, of their immorality and yet, with a tact that has never been surpassed, he begins his address by an allusion to an incident in his walk to the Acropolis. He had observed, as he told them, many altars to various divinities, and among them, an altar dedicated to "the unknown God." The Athenians were polytheists, and were quite willing to admit the possibility of the existence of other gods than their own. St. Paul makes this the starting point of his address, in which he unfolds to them the whole story of the Gospel of Christ. A study of these passages will leave on the minds of the readers an indelible impression as to the high literary qualities of the writings that are contained in the Bible.

Illustrations might be multiplied almost indefinitely, but in every case it will be found that attention to the literary expression and form of any passage of the Bible is sure to give us more of its meaning than we should otherwise get, while in many cases the meaning of the passage can not be correctly understood without some consideration of the literary qualities of the chapter or chapters in which it is found. Our reverence for the Bible as the Book of the Christian religion is so great that we sometimes seem almost to forget that, if it is the word of God, it has nevertheless been communicated to us in the language of men. This being the case, it is subject to the rules of literary interpretation that we apply to other great monuments of human thought and expression.

*THE BEARING ON THE OLD TESTAMENT ON AR-
CHAEOLOGICAL FINDS MADE BY THE UNIVER-
SITY OF PENNSYLVANIA AT NIPPUR
IN BABYLONIA*

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN, DEAN OF THE COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY
OF PENNSYLVANIA .

In order to understand the bearing of recent archaeological work on the historical statements of the Old Testament, it is necessary to consider first what the Old Testament has to say of periods in the history of the world earlier than the time at which any of

the books of the Old Testament were written. We must remember that the Old Testament (considering only its historical statements) is not, and does not profess to be a record of the history of the entire human race, but only of that nation known as the Hebrews. Almost all that was known of the world prior to the time of Abraham was, until comparatively recently, comprised in the early chapters of the Book of Genesis; but those early chapters are to be regarded merely as a sketch or epitome of the important events in the world's history before the call of Abraham, about 2000 B. C. From the time of Abraham on, the history is more detailed, and the development and deeds of the Hebrew people are recorded. That the Old Testament has come to us from a remote past can not fairly be questioned; but that it came, even the oldest books of it, from a period comparatively late in the history of the human race is also beyond question, accepting as correct the earliest dates that have ever been assigned for the writing of any of the books of the Old Testament. Archaeology has carried back the history of the human race nearly 4000 years anterior to the time of Abraham. The chronology of Ussher, which fixed the date of creation at 4004 B. C. has no authority except as the expression of his personal opinion. Unfortunately, Ussher's chronology has, for two hundred years, been printed on the margins of the English Bible, and in that way has come to be regarded almost as part of the Bible. The Bible records do not give us the data by which to calculate the date of creation, and there are many widely divergent opinions as to the interpretation of such data as may be found in the Bible. The books of the Old Testament are, from both internal and external evidence, only a part of what must have been a great and varied, and highly developed Hebrew literature, for their literary form and style predicate great cultivation on the part of their writers.

If we examine these books carefully we shall find references to books quoted as authorities, which were in existence at the time at which the Old Testament books were written, and from which the writers of portions of the Old Testament drew much information about the times of which they wrote. This is notably the case in the books of Chronicles, in which the reader is referred, for further details concerning some particular king, to some book not now extant. That the books of the Old Testament should be to-day all that is left us of a great Hebrew literature is a fact that marks out the Bible as a remarkable book, even were there no

other reasons for the high regard in which it has for centuries been held.

The time of Moses, about 1500 B. C., is one in which the world was inhabited by many nations, of which the Jews formed a small and apparently unimportant part. Palestine, before the entrance of Israel, was a populous and prosperous land, the home of various peoples and studded here and there with great walled cities. We are not accustomed to thinking of Palestine apart from the Jews; but even a hasty reading of the book of Joshua will show us that Palestine was the scene of great activity long before the Jews entered it. The early chapters of Genesis, particularly the tenth, likewise show us that Babylonia and Palestine were thickly settled in days earlier than the time of Abraham. In the tenth chapter of Genesis we are told that Nimrod reigned over Babel, and Erech, and Accad, and Calneh in the land of Shinar, and that "out of that land went forth Ashhur and builded Ninevah" and other great cities.

Calneh, in the land of Shinar, is in all probability the ancient city of Nippur which, during the last dozen years, has been the site of excavations carried on by the University of Pennsylvania. The results of these excavations have been remarkable, and have added several milleniums to the known history of the world. The fact that the writer of Genesis mentions in a number of instances the ancient name of some city, and then proceeds to call it by what was to him its modern name, is an indication of the antiquity of the cities of which he spoke. The lists of names given in the tenth chapter of Genesis are usually regarded by most readers of the Bible as of little significance, and indeed they were so until the pick-axe and shovel of the excavator brought to light the remains of civilizations which antedate the time of Abraham by thousands of years. In the fourteenth chapter of Genesis there is an account of the war of the four kings against the five, and even within very recent years some critics have maintained that the events recorded in that chapter, and even in the persons there mentioned, were nothing more than myths; but hardly had these opinions been expressed before the tablets and inscriptions of various kinds were found bearing the names of some of these very kings, and from similar sources other facts have been ascertained, showing that the fourteenth chapter of Genesis is a record of actual history.

It was argued that it was quite impossible in the time of Abraham for any armies, such as are implied in the fourteenth

chapter of Genesis, to have traversed the breadth of Syria and to have entered the land of Palestine, and yet the excavations conducted by the University of Pennsylvania show conclusively that 2500 years before the time of Abraham, a king, whose name was Lugalzaggisi, reigned over the whole of that land from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. Excavations in Babylonia have likewise shown that the Tower of Babel was no myth, but a veritable reality, for on a cylinder in the University of Pennsylvania Museum, dating from the time of Nebuchadnezzar, is the expressed purpose of Nebuchadnezzar to devote himself to the rebuilding of the Tower of Babel so that "its top might reach unto Heaven;" and that tower has been shown to be the tower at Babylon, corresponding to a tower precisely similar, which has been unearthed at Nippur. These storied towers, consisting of a succession of platforms, were characteristic features of the temples which existed in Babylonia, the remains of some of which are to be seen to this day.

It had long been known that the mounds of Nippur marked the site of an ancient city, or rather of a succession of cities, built one on top of another, so that digging vertically through one of the mounds the excavator is passing from comparatively recent buildings and civilizations down to buildings and civilizations thousands of years before the time of Christ. The top of these mounds contains remains of cities of a comparatively late period in the history of Persia. In one of these mounds a small room was found in which were several hundred tablets containing the records of a firm of bankers and brokers, who did business at Nippur in the time of Ezra and Nehemiah. Many of the tablets are interesting as showing the care with which business transactions were recorded. On one of these tablets was found a record of money paid for an emerald ring, and it is interesting to note that this tablet contained a guarantee that money would be refunded if the emerald fell out of its setting within twenty years. Mortgages, promissory notes, receipts for money, and other legal documents made up this collection of tablets.

The river Chebar, on which Ezekiel saw his vision was, apart from the mention of it in the Old Testament, entirely unknown until, on one of these tablets, was found mention of the river Chebar, which showed that that river was a navigable canal near the city of Nippur, and that it was therefore in that neighborhood that Ezekiel and his fellow-exiles were placed during their cap-

tivity. At the lowest part of the excavations the oldest remains are found, and there are in the University of Pennsylvania Museum today numerous fragments of marble vases on which was inscribed by Lugalzaggisi 4500 B. C., the story of his triumphs. These fragments form the oldest inscription of any length that is known to us. The beauty of the vases is itself a silent but powerful testimony to the artistic development of the world 6500 years ago, while the fact that the interior of these fragments shows them to have been not merely chipped out by hand but actually turned on a lathe or some other revolving instrument proves that the men of that ancient time were in possession of considerable knowledge of mechanical devices. The engineering feats of the builders of the Pyramids are today the marvel of the world, and the artistic skill shown by the men of Lugalzaggisi's generation excite our admiration and praise.

Much of the excavations represents history far earlier than the time of Abraham, but in the remains at Nippur and elsewhere, contemporaneous with the time of Abraham, or subsequent to his day, are found from time to time remarkable corroborations of the historical statements of the Old Testament.

The story of God's dealing with the Jews is, of course, the subject of most of the books of the Old Testament, and other nations are mentioned only as they come in contact with the Jews. In the same way, in the records of other nations, almost no mention is made of the Jews, so that direct evidence as to the accuracy of the Old Testament is not ordinarily to be expected. An interesting fact, however, is that wherever mention is made in the records of other nations of events concerning which we have some account in the Old Testament, the two records supplement, corroborate and illustrate each other.

In this way the excavations in Babylonia have confirmed many historical statements of the Hebrew Scriptures, and have thrown floods of light on the life of the human race prior to the time at which we have any Hebrew record at all.

This great work of the University of Pennsylvania has been going on with some interruptions since 1899, when the first expedition went out under the direction of Dr. J. P. Peters with Professor H. V. Hilprecht as Assyriologist. Since that time the work in the field has been largely under the direction of Dr. J. H. Haynes, while Professor Hilprecht, to whom the success of the

whole undertaking is so largely due, has acted in the capacity of scientific director.

The results that have been obtained are perhaps the most remarkable that has ever been obtained by any similar expedition; and the fact that this great work has been done by an American University is a subject for congratulation.

PEDAGOGICAL TREATMENT OF THE BIBLE— SUMMARY

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We would not generally look to a collection of ancient religious writings for modern pedagogical principles, for the pedagogical arrangement of its subjects, and for pedagogical inspiration of the higher character. That such is true in regard to the Bible will be perfectly apparent to any careful student of its pages.

Whatever system or master one follows, he must recognize certain great underlying and controlling principles. These have been put into words and make our fundamental laws of teaching. I may mention here briefly eight of them:

- 1 Find mental or spiritual plane of pupil.
- 2 The teacher must know.
- 3 The pupil must attend.
- 4 The language must be common to both.
- 5 Go from known to unknown.
- 6 Teaching must arouse mind to self-activity.
- 7 Reproduce in pupil's own language.
- 8 Test processes and pupils by reviews and application.

These principles are joined one to another and end in a climax.

Time is wanting to show in how many ways and places in the Bible these laws are exemplified.

All true education proceeds upon the assumption that the subject matter must be graded down to the pupil's capacity in order that he may be graded up in acquisition of knowledge and power. The last precept of Moses to his people was "Teach your children the laws of Jehovah." This process was begun by memory, and he gives explicit directions for it in Deuteronomy 6 and 11. In

order to give efficacy to this work the ancient Jews divided child life into "not fewer than eight stages of development." (See Edersheim's *Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah*, vol. I, page 221, note 3 at bottom.) They were thus designated: (1) The new born babe; (2) the suckling; (3) the suckling beginning to ask for food; (4) the weaned child; (5) the child clinging to its mother; (6) the child becoming firm; (7) the lad, "one who shakes himself free;" and (8) the ripened one.

Here surely is a distinct provision for adapting instruction to the pupil.

What finer example of teaching a great multitude at once can be found in all literature than that given in Nehemiah 8. This account even descends into specifying the methods adopted. They read "distinctly" and caused the people to understand—a hint to modern elocutionists.

Allow me to use one further illustration which is very comprehensive. I refer to the account given in John 4 of Jesus and the Woman of Samaria.

He first found her plane.

He caught and held her attention.

He spoke in plain language which she understood.

He went from the known water in the well to the unknown water of life.

He aroused her soul to activity.

He sent her to reproduce what she had learned.

He secured the application of the truth by her to others.

It is quite true that the Bible is not put together in all details in the chronological order in which its books were written. But we may be sure that no message was ever given to Israel and recorded that was in the least out of date or without regard to their spiritual development. It has taken the world a long time to understand that the Bible is a perfect text book. To be sure our antiquated method of printing it has helped to obscure this fact. But Dr. Moulton has come to our rescue in his most excellent "Modern Readers' Bible."

The Bible, just as we have it, gives an account of how God trained, educated a nation. They were mixed with other nations as historical books with all others. He separated them. In their national childhood He taught them by sacrifices, by signs, by wonders, by object lessons on a large scale and by a written law. He

stimulated them by the voice of prophesy and the song of the poet. He disciplined them for disobedience. When they wanted to be a nation He chastened them into a church by the Babylonian captivity. When all else failed He came in human flesh and dwelt amongst them in order to show the beauty and power of holiness. When awakened conscience cried out for peace, He paid the penalty of guilt and broke the power of sin forever. When this life needed explanation and application, He sent them wonderful treatises on doctrine and life. When a weakened church was threatened with destruction through fiery persecutions, He spread future triumph and glory before them in the Apocalyptic vision. So God was the Great Teacher.

Now God's book gives the record of His work upon a people. Every individual was in His view. And it comes to pass that our Bible fits individuals today. For children there are the wonderful stories of the Pentateuch and Judges and Ruth, etc.

For youth there are tales and proverbs and love songs.

For grown men philosophy in Ecclesiastes and Job. And so the book proceeds in perfect order to its radiant close.

Every serious man who is trying hard to overcome difficulties has sore need at times for inspiration. It is too much to say that this is particularly true in our Southern field, and most emphatically true in the country districts of the South? There are personal obstacles that are a part of the teacher's life, such as poverty, inadequate preparation, conscious personal limitations of one kind or another, movable and immovable. Then there is that awful percentage of ignorance.

The poverty of the States.

Small salaries.

Poor equipment.

And always a feeling that one is not fully appreciated. Life runs low at times.

We need the inspiration of sympathy. Hence these gatherings.

We need the inspiration that comes from the possession and pursuit of lofty ideals in education and life.

We need the inspiration of hope.

Some way—it is scarcely possible to say how—the Bible seems to personify itself, and speak as a friend, whose arms are strong and whose heart is warm.

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It offers a wonderful combination of sweetness and life, of strength and beauty. It begets and feeds the hope that these ideals may be made into flesh and blood by our hands.

Ever since the Bible became universalized, the really great teachers and educational leaders have nearly all derived their whole inspiration from it directly or indirectly. Put a few of them on the stand today and question them. Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Arnold of Rugby, Mann.

In hours of severe temptation and trial men like unto these have turned to the Bible for inspiration to work on and on and on. To illustrate: The dream of the minister, who in poverty and sickness and distress, sat with his family at a supper of potatoes and salt with only water to drink. As he raised his head from asking a blessing he saw the son of God come slowly to his steps. He rose and invited Him in with his heart all throbbing for joy, and asked the guest to be seated at the simple meal. Jesus sat and talked and ate. Leaving by and by, a new inspiration sprang up in the man's heart. Somehow the Greatest Teacher in all the world touches us and we live again.



DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session—City Council Chamber, Friday, December 27, 2:30 P. M.

The department of superintendence of the S. E. A. met in the city council chamber at 2:30 p. m. and was called to order by President R. J. Tighe of the Asheville City Schools. Superintendent Hughes of Greenville, was appointed secretary *pro tem*.

The address of President Tighe was the first thing on the programme. He discussed the "Duties of the School Superintendent."

The paper was discussed by Superintendent Lawton B. Evans, of Augusta, and County Superintendent B. B. Clarke, of Kershaw county.

Superintendent J. G. Wooten, chairman of the Committee on Flexible Grading, being absent, this committee made no report. The committee was continued.

Principal T. B. Hamby, of Asheville, read a paper on the subject. Superintendents Hand of Chester, Moses of Raleigh, Phillips of Birmingham, Hughes of Greenville and Gordon of Memphis discussed Mr. Hamby's paper.

The third question for discussion, "Consolidation of Rural Schools," was not taken up from lack of time. The election of officers was made the first order of business for the next session.

Second Session—City Council Chamber, Saturday, December 28, 3:30 P. M.

The department was called to order at 3 p. m. by President Tighe. Professor T. B. Hamby, of Asheville, N. C., was appointed secretary in the absence of the regular secretary.

By previous motion the first order of the meeting was the election of officers for the ensuing year. The following is a list of those elected:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

President—Supt. Lawton B. Evans, Augusta, Ga.

Vice-President—Prof. W. C. A. Hammel, Baltimore, Md.

Secretary—Supt. E. L. Hughes, Greenville, S. C.

Supt. C. B. Gibson, of Columbus, Ga., addressed the department on Manual Training.

Prof. E. E. Utterback, Atlanta, Ga., being absent, Supt. J. H. Van Sickle, of Baltimore, was asked to open the general discussion. He was

followed by Miss Jennie F. Ford, of Milledgeville, Ga., with a talk on Domestic Science and its relations to Manual Training.

Supt. J. I. Foust, Goldsboro, N. C., read a paper on Efficient Means of Teaching Self-Government and Citizenship. In the general discussion which followed Prof. Coles, of Hampton, Va., High School, discussed his method of having students provide scholarships in colleges by subscriptions. The meeting then adjourned.

T. B. HAMBY,
Acting Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

SUPERINTENDENT RICHARD J. TIGHE, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT

Gentlemen and Members of the Department of Superintendence:

I desire to discuss for a few minutes today the work of the superintendent, his province, his problems, and his opportunities; not as one speaking with the knowledge and authority of long experience, but rather as a member of this department, endeavoring to solve some of the problems confronting us; as one who believes thoroughly in the value of such meetings as this, and in the efficacy of a free and open discussion of all matters pertaining to school administration.

The American superintendent of schools, as he appears today, is a growth brought about by the conditions, needs and development of the American public school. At first his mission does not seem to have been a very influential one—a kind of supernumerary of the board of education, charged with the duty of looking after text books, certain clerical work, and other duties too onerous for the non-salaried official. Time was when the superannuated teacher or clergyman, the lawyer or the politician was considered good enough for the position of school superintendent; and while it may be said that these conditions still prevail, to some extent, in many communities, still I believe the popular conception of a school superintendent in this country at present is that of a man of culture and wide experience in matters educational, both from the standpoint of the teacher and that of the administrative officer. It would be interesting to follow up the development of the superintendent through the latter half of the nineteenth century, had we the time—to compare the results obtained in communities where

the superintendent works under the most favorable conditions with those in which he is more restricted. But the scope of this paper will not admit of such a discussion.

What is the province of the school superintendent? The answer to this question depends largely upon the status of the county, city, or community in which he is to work, as well as upon that of the school board with which he is connected. But speaking broadly, and keeping in mind what I conceive to be the popular ideal of a school superintendent, I should say that his duties are largely of an executive and a judicial nature; he is still, however, in many respects the "man of all work" of the school system. He is the chief administrative officer of the board, carrying out and putting into form its wishes and purposes. He should have in charge the recommendation of teachers for positions and their disposition after election, the organization of the system, the execution of the ideals and purposes of the course of study, and a general oversight of the corps of teachers—their methods of teaching and professional improvement. He should constitute a court of last resort for all ordinary cases of discipline affecting pupils, referring only extreme cases to the board. In fine, wherever professional or expert knowledge is required, the duty should belong to the superintendent; in matters of a partially professional nature, like the arrangement of a course of study, selection of text books, etc., there should be free discussion by the superintendent and board; other matters, where professional knowledge is not essential, such as finances, may be safely left to the board.

But in addition to all these duties, the up-to-date superintendent will often find himself confronted by problems with which he must grapple and by opportunities upon which he must seize. And more especially is this true if his board is a weak, or indifferent one. The position of the school board should be that of leadership in educational matters. Never should it be behind or below the standards of the community. The board and the superintendent should be ever alert and informed on all matters relative to the educational progress of the community. Should it so happen that the board is weak in this respect, it devolves upon the superintendent to so influence the legislation of the board as to keep the school system up to its full measure of efficiency. And, again, if the superintendent is fortunate enough to be associated with a body of men who are much in advance of the standards of the community, it becomes necessary for him to lend a hand in the molding of

public opinion through his teachers, the press, and from the platform; for by virtue of his position, as the educational leader of his county or city, as the case may be, he has the opportunity to be the most potent factor for the realization of the highest ideals of culture and educational progress.

One of the greatest problems with which the superintendent has to deal is that of procuring efficient teachers. Especially is this true in the rural districts where the length of term is short, salaries low, and, consequently, less incentive to the young man or woman of ability to go into the work. So long as the average yearly salary for a teacher in a commonwealth like North Carolina remains at the miserly sum of \$77.00, there can be but little hope of getting superior men and women to enter the work permanently, or of getting those who do enter to invest much in professional preparation. Such a state of things gives us as teachers, boys and young men who teach merely as a means to help them into something better, and young women who leave the work at the first chance. We can not blame these young people for doing thus. We are not all imbued with a missionary spirit, and in this day of intense commercialism, when the law of supply and demand works so sensitively, brawn and brains, as well as the commodities, seek the best markets.

The South stands greatly in need of more training schools for teachers. In this connection it is interesting to note that in 1893, Prussia had in her teachers' seminaries one student to every 2764 inhabitants, and that 1-5 of those engaged in teaching at that time were the sons and grandsons of teachers. There were in that year 2521 teachers in Prussia who had been in service between 40 and 50 years; and the reports show that the average term of service was then about 25 years. Of the 71,731 teachers then at work in Prussia, there were but 241 who had not had training in the teachers' seminary or its equivalent. It may, therefore, I think, be truly said that in Germany, at least, teaching is a profession.

It is quite evident, that with us, at least three things are needed in order that the teaching force may be made more effective; namely, better material for teachers, more and better facilities for the training of teachers, and a longer school term with higher salaries. In the meantime, it becomes incumbent upon the superintendent to use his influence in every legitimate way upon people and legislatures to help bring these things to pass, and to use every means in his power to better the condition and to make

more effective teaching instruments of the teachers now in the work.

But in order to bring about these changes, more money must be raised. The amount expended for education in the Southern states last year was about \$1.34 per capita, or \$9.72 for each pupil; and the corresponding amounts for the whole country in 1899 were \$2.67 and \$18.99, respectively. It is thus seen, that the South is raising for educational purposes only about 50 per cent. of what the country as a whole is doing; and when we compare this section in this respect with other states and sections of the country, the disparity is so great as to be almost discouraging.

In the North Atlantic division of states 1-5 of all the school taxes is raised and apportioned by the state and 4-5 is contributed by local taxation, while in the South about 2-3 is raised by the state and 1-3 by local tax, of which a large part comes from towns and cities having graded systems. Of course, it is to be understood that these figures refer to the South as a whole and not to individual states, for in many cases as in Maryland, Virginia, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana and Arkansas the amounts raised by local tax are about equal to or exceed those apportioned by the state; while in the other states, I believe the state tax exceeds the local tax. It is not to be expected that where the money for local expenses, whether for schools or other institutions, is distributed from the general fund of the state or the county, the people will take a live interest in these institutions. Local patriotism in any enterprise is best aroused by the people of the community contributing directly by local taxation. I believe that one of the greatest drawbacks to the development of local improvement in the rural districts of North Carolina is due to the fact that the county is the unit of government. In states having the township as the unit there is a conspicuous lack of the apathy which is to be found in states using the county as the unit. The county is evidently too large a community for the development of local patriotism to any large extent.

This is a problem which every city, county, and state superintendent in the South must help to solve for the community, the state and the South. I believe that this department of the Southern Educational Association could do much toward organizing a new propaganda on taxation for educational purposes if it would take some united action in the matter.

It is not, however, sufficient that funds be raised and ex-

pended for school purposes. They must be equitably and judiciously expended; so that each individual in the state shall have his proportionate share of the advantages. More than this, it has been found that the state must go a step further and command that her citizens spend a certain amount of time in her schools. Germany dates the beginning of her school system from the middle of the 17th century when she first passed compulsory education laws. Seventy-five years ago there were in the district of Aachen 66,611 children of school age, and of this number 32,471, or 49 per cent, did not attend school. In 1891, of the total number of school age, 94,471, there were only 7 children reported for non-attendance. This gives some idea of the efficiency of the compulsory education laws of Germany. All children, between the ages of six and fourteen years, are required to be in school every day the schools are in session, unless prevented by illness which is the only excuse accepted. Going to school has now become a habit with the German child, and the law has long since ceased to be felt as a hardship, for no one thinks of remaining away from school except for sickness. It has been asserted by those in a position to know, that even should the compulsory laws be discontinued, parents would still send their children regularly.

The right to compel school attendance is well established in most of the states of the union, and it is now fast becoming popular with all classes in the South. The answer to this question propounded to the mechanics and farmers of North Carolina by the Hon. B. R. Lacy, Commissioner of Labor and Printing, was largely in favor of a compulsory law. Fraternal, social, and religious orders are taking the matter up, and just now public sentiment seems to be running strongly in its favor. In his report, Commissioner Lacy remarks: "With compulsory education it would be but a question of a few years when such a condition as children six and eight years of age working from eleven to twelve and a quarter hours a day would be impossible. This condition is solely the result of illiteracy and will continue as long as North Carolina maintains her unenviable position as the most illiterate state in the Union."

The opponents of compulsory education may justly claim that it is an infringement on civil liberty, the authority of the parent, etc.; but the same is true with regard to restricting the free speech of anarchists and other elements dangerous to our social system. The cloak of democracy has too long been the shelter for

many of man's shortcomings, a fact which most thinking men of today are ready to acknowledge. Doubtless compulsory education forces many parents to make great personal sacrifices, but if all the children can be kept in school in Germany, where wages are low and living comparatively high, surely the same can be done in America where the workingman has a very decided advantage over his brother in Europe.

It is my belief that this matter should be taken up by every city in the South having the power granted them in their charters to do so. There are several reasons why the city school system is the best place in which to begin this work. It has usually the facilities and the means for experimentation and execution which are not to be found in rural communities. If the leading city systems of the states could thus be made object lessons to the surrounding country, I believe that one of the greatest problems of Southern education would soon be solved.

In the drafting of the course of study the superintendent meets with a most difficult part of his work and, at the same time one of his greatest opportunities. The course of study should be a bird's-eye-view of the work of the school system in some detail. It should not lack in unity, and at the same time it should leave room for the individuality of the teacher and the pupil; and it should allow as well for conditions peculiar to the several districts of the system. Due consideration must be given the culture subjects as well as those studies which give the student command of the forms and methods of intellectual communication and inquiry. It is a problem because it must have the breadth and height of the most advanced education of the day, and it must, likewise, be suited to the social conditions of the community for which it is a guide and which it seeks to elevate. It is an opportunity because it may be made the means of leading both teacher and pupil to a higher plane by the scope of its view and the chances which it provides for self-realization. The old idea of the school as a preparation for later life is giving way everywhere to the new idea of the school as a social center, as a community with a present life to be lived full of possibilities. The difference between the new and the old education was never more clearly stated than by John Dewey when he said, "Education is not a preparation for life; it is life." The course of study must be made to meet these new ideals which are merely an expression of the demands of our present state of civilization.

These and other questions, among which may be mentioned state uniformity of text books, free text books, better buildings and better equipment, the educational needs of the negro as distinguished from those of the whites, the introduction of social occupations, and the establishment of technical schools are all calling for solution and for more careful consideration than is at present being accorded them. And in view of these facts, I wish to submit to this body for its careful consideration this question: Would it not be wise for this department of the Southern Educational Association to hold an extra meeting for one or more weeks each year, at some time after the close of the school session, for the purpose of discussing questions and subjects relative to school work in general and the work of the superintendent in particular? I believe such meetings could be made eminently helpful to the cause of education in and to the state, county, and city superintendent. I do not wish to leave the impression that I undervalue the importance of the work which this department has and can do, but I do feel the necessity for more time and a fuller discussion of the problems of school supervision.

DISCUSSION

SUPT. LAWTON B. EVANS, AUGUSTA, GA.

I have listened with much interest to the excellent suggestions contained in the paper of our worthy president. It seems to me that the intimation he gives of the proper division of work between the Board of Education and its Superintendent deserves careful consideration from us at this time.

In many instances the most serious obstacle in the way of progress is the Board of Education itself, which is elected to represent the people and which holds the power to permanently injure a school system by insisting upon measures of which the members are necessarily ignorant. However excellent men they may be in other regards they can not always be school experts. It seems to me that the best division of work is for the Board of Education to agree that the superintendent must be responsible for the selection, retention and management of the teachers and also to allow him to select and arrange the text-books and course of study. I consider the critical moment in the history of the schools to be when a teacher is elected. The gradual accumulation of good teachers means the gradual improvement of the schools. The constant addition of poor teachers means the deterioration of the schools.

The Board of Education itself should look after the financial and material part, such as securing of school funds, fixing salaries, building school

houses and making contracts of all sorts. In other words the Board of Education should look after the business side of the schools and leave the superintendent responsible for the professional side. I think that if this division were made and agreed to by both sides, there would be less embarrassment and confusion and a more general satisfaction in the management of the school system.

A REVIEW AND GENERAL DISCUSSION OF PLANS OF FLEXIBLE GRADING

PRINCIPAL T. B. HAMBY, ASHEVILLE, N. C.

Mr. President and Fellow Teachers:

There is no subject of such vital interest to the future welfare of our schools as that of grading, classifying and promoting pupils.

In this paper, we shall endeavor to present some of the defects that abound in the present most popular systems of grading and to discuss with recommendations some of the most progressive systems that aim at the correction of these defects. We have endeavored to investigate as carefully as time would permit the various plans now in use in this country, and to consider briefly the most marked types, with recommendations based on the conditions that may be found in the South. We acknowledge to have received valuable assistance from the report of Dr. Emerson E. White, of Cincinnati, and from the reports of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

We find from the sources we have above referred to that most of the schools of the United States are still worshipping the god Uniformity in matters of promoting and grading.

We find in very general use the following: (1) Promotion by "platoons" or classes at stated intervals; (2) the one-year interval for all classes above the first grade; (3) the one class to the teacher, whether there be thirty or seventy pupils in this class; (4) promotions determined by averages made on examinations formulated by either the superintendent or the principal; (5) classification made to suit the *average* child.

We can not set forth our basic principle more clearly or in more forceful expression than by quoting from Prof. Shearer, when he says:

"None can deny that the children of every grade differ widely in age, in acquirements, in aptitudes, in physical endurance, in power of attention, in rate of mental development, in the time of entering school, in regularity of attendance, and in many other ways influencing their progress; yet because of the manner of grading and promoting, the graded school tends to keep all of the same grade in intellectual lockstep, not only month after month, but year after year for their whole school lives. Children are not alike in ability or in any other way, and God never intended that we should be held responsible for making them alike." That there can be "no essential identity of child character possible" is one of the first discoveries of the child-study student, and its truth can not be doubted. And yet are we planning our courses and doing our promotions after this creed? Verily, no. The essential principle of the systems that are in general use, as statistics show, are inimical to these very conditions we admit to exist, and for which existence we thank God.

In Prof. Shearer's report from which we have quoted, he may be a little too severe in his condemnation of the schools as regards their crushing out the individuality of the children, but he is not one whit too strong in his belief that the school does not consider difference in ability, capacity, and attainments, and their constant variance in every class, no matter how small. But the school continues to yoke together a group of children because they may at the time be of nearly equal attainments and, regardless of their constant variance of ability, yokes them together for ever more.

To recount the defects of the most popular system—the one-year lock-step—one class to the teacher system, the bright child is chained to the child of average ability; and he to the dull child. They must all move in the same direction with the same rapidity. If the course is planned to suit the attainments of the child of average ability, it may suit the others for a day, but owing to their various capacities for work, the three children would set out with as various gaits, and it would be only a short time before they would all work apart, if left alone. It is here that uniformity menaces the development of the bright child and the dull; for to keep them yoked together in a uniform grade, the bright must mark time, and the dull are forcibly dragged over the course. The results are that the bright have lost time and have acquired habits of only partially exerting themselves, and the dull or slow children are not instructed thoroughly.

Now if we are agreed on these defects, we have only a negative formula for our ideal system, and we must steer clear of these rocks, but whither shall we go, when we abandon our one-year interval "platoon" promoting system is the question. In our positive formula must we hold as a factor the saving of time for the bright child and the keeping the dull from being dragged on, or rather the enriching the course of the bright, thereby keeping them from "marking time," and at the same time not giving the slow too much to do? Are eight years too many to devote to the preparation for the high school? Is the age 14 years too old for the average age of the first year of the high school? If these questions were first settled, we should better know which essentials to use in formulating our system of flexible grading that can be adjusted to almost any set of local conditions.

There are probably enough plans devised and successfully operated in many of our most prominent city schools from which to make a selection, and after proper adjustment to local conditions, use to better advantage than the one we now use.

But before we discuss the subject further, if we are to discuss it with the hope of arriving any nearer at a decision, we must have clearly in our minds what we want. Of all the systems we have had occasion to investigate—systems that are prominent because of their individuality—there seem to be certain fundamental principles underlying each. Every one of these systems taboos to a great extent uniformity and has for its object to give every pupil a chance to do his best—unhampered by any class mechanism. All these systems ignore the existence of an average child, and if they accomplish what they aim at and purport to do, the solution of the problem is near at hand.

But to do his best admits of two interpretations. With the majority of schools it means the giving the opportunity to the pupil to accomplish the work of the primary and the preparatory schools in a fewer number of years than those usually prescribed—7, 8 or 9. With others it does not admit of the accomplishment of the work in a fewer number of years, but it gives the brightest the opportunity of getting more out of the course than the mediocre and the slow can get, and yet it keeps all busy, and gives each a chance to do his best.

We find these to be factors in all these systems; they appear either singly or in combination: (1) frequent reclassification; (2) short intervals between classes; (3) a duplicate system for sev-

eral grades, one arranged so as to admit of more rapid advancement—by accomplishing the work in a fewer number of years, the two courses coinciding at some point, and admitting of a transfer from one course to another, thus affording further opportunities of making the gradation still more flexible; (4) double promotions, made possible by having two courses in every class—one of only essentials and completed in one-half the class interval; (5) using supplementary work and permitting the bright to use their judgment in “cutting” recitations and working ahead of their class until they are prepared to do the work of the advanced grade; (6) grouping together small bodies of children of nearly equal attainments and instructing them for a year under one teacher, advancing them as rapidly as they will be advanced—no “nailed to the calendar” course of study.

These six factors, by combination, are capable of making twice six of practical plans, one of which should be more or less suitable to every set of local conditions.

Trusting that a brief outline of some of the most typical systems in use may precipitate a healthful discussion on specific lines, I shall give the essential features of the most conspicuous examples:

The plan used by the schools of Seattle, Washington: The school is divided into three departments, high school, grammar school and the primary schools. The grammar schools and the primary schools are each divided into four classes, A, B, C, D, and each of these is subdivided into as many “divisions” of 20 pupils each as the number of pupils enrolled in the grade and the number of teachers will permit. The course of study for the year is so flexible that when a division has finished it that division, instead of being promoted and changing teachers, continues to advance under the same teacher until the end of the year, doing the work of the next class, and may be will complete the work of the next division in the same year. This is a case of continual promotion from day to day. The dull members of the class on reclassification would readily find a class doing about the same work that they need, to which class they may be transferred at any time. By this plan promotion at the end of the year is rather a change of teachers than a promotion.

The plan used by Dr. Wm. T. Harris a quarter of a century ago while superintendent of the St. Louis schools abounds in good points and is briefly stated as follows:

Short class intervals of 5, 6, 7, 8 or 10 weeks; a limited number of 30 pupils to a grade or class; set times for examinations; continual classifications; flexible course of study; two sections to every teacher, in primary grades three sections to every teacher; a central school to adjust special cases of promotion; the promotion of the teacher to prevent a too frequent change of teachers. The different rates of progress made by the pupils of varying capacities are provided for nearly entirely by reclassification. "Maturity and ability to go on with the work" is made the test for advancement into a higher grade. With a short class interval, a pupil may be advanced to a higher grade at any time without making a "jump." The next class is so arranged that it will probably be reviewing hurriedly that part of the course which may be new matter to this pupil.

It occurs to us that there can be few other objections to this plan than the expense attached. In this respect there may not be additional expense in a large system where there must be more than one teacher to a grade.

By the Cambridge plan, the work of the grammar school is divided into two courses, each course accomplishing the same work but in a different time.

When a pupil is promoted from grade three, he may take either grade A or grade 4. Should he enter the series "A, B, C, D," it will require only four years to accomplish the work of the grammar school. Should he find the other series more suitable, it will require six years to prepare himself for the high school. And since the completion of grade "B" is one-half of the course, also is the completion of grade 6 one-half of the course, it is possible at the expiration of either the "B" grade or the sixth grade for the pupil to effect a transfer from one series to another, thereby either lengthening or shortening his course by one year; in this way the six years of the grammar work may be accomplished, in either 4, 5 or 6 years. It is claimed by those that have tried this plan, that it may be used in any school either large or small, and will not entail any additional expense. This plan may be modified by arranging classes A, B and C and a parallel course into grades 4, 5, 6 and 7. A comparison of the progress of the grades of the two series A, B and C with 4, 5, 6 and 7, would be: Grade A would accomplish in one year the work of the fourth grade and one-third of the work of the fifth grade; grade "B" would begin its work at a point corresponding to one-third of the work of the

fifth grade and would accomplish the work of this grade and two-thirds of the work of grade six; grade "C" would complete the work of the sixth grade and would also complete the work of the seventh. I do not think it would require any larger teaching force to work with this plan than with any other. One of the obvious advantages of this plan is that the grades are constantly working apart and then coming together, thereby making it possible to classify, without any great deal of difficulty, and since there must be some time during the four years, when the work of the two series must coincide, transfers must be made from one grade to another, thereby lengthening or shortening the time required for completion of the courses. By this plan four years' work may be done in three years plus, 3 or 4.

The plan of Mr. Jas. Van Sickle, of Denver, embodies these ideas: "The central thought is individual responsibility." He aims at simplicity of mechanism. His purpose is "to secure better use of time; to fit each pupil to rely upon his own judgment, by often allowing him to share with the teacher the responsibility of deciding what he should do at a given time; to secure by means of this individual responsibility, willing effort, even on less agreeable studies, thus keeping the pupil fairly even in his work; to secure more time in school, where conditions favor concentration, and thus do away with the necessity of 'keeping' school, etc., etc."

To accomplish this Mr. Van Sickle uses the half-year interval above the third grade; promotes the individual at any time he is qualified. His plan is to provide each room with "sets of supplementary books and a carefully selected reference library of from 50 to 60 volumes. For while those pupils for whom the minimum requirement in a given subject is sufficient are mastering a given assignment in that subject, others, capable of doing more, though not yet strong enough in all studies to be able to skip a half year, are, by a process of natural selection, detaching themselves temporarily from the class in order to work on some study, in which they are weak or for broader and deeper study of the topic by means of the reference books, gathering illustrative material or following out some line of interest approved by the teacher. Those excused may at any time be required to rejoin the recitation to give needed help to others. Thus they are continually held responsible for the work on hand." This plan is not to save time for the pupil, in hurrying through the course, but it saves time for him, wherein he does not mark time for even a day. The bright pupil

gets more out of the course than the dull pupil or the average, and each gets as much as he may. This plan involves more work by the teacher in planning, but it would readily appear that she would be saved much energy and time in the matter of disciplining.

Mr. Van Sickle lays much stress on well directed study, and this occurs to us as very wise. In some of our schools where the daily session is five to five and one-half hours long, from four to four and one-half hours are devoted to testing the children and one-half hour is given to recreation, while only one-half hour is devoted to study, and in some schools I have known the pupils did not even get this time for study under the direction of the teacher. It is a false idea that some teachers and patrons and boards of education have that a teacher is not doing her children full justice unless these children are being "heard lessons" all day. This idea is somewhat responsible for the slow introduction of these better systems of grading, since they all must and do make ample allowance for the study hours in school under the teacher's direction.

This paper is already too long, but before I close, I must make a plea for a certain class of children that embraces from 10 to 15 per cent of the children in our schools. None of our Southern city schools is so far distant from fields of rank illiteracy as not to have a large percentum of this class of pupils.

This element I refer to is the overgrown, gawky, ignorant boy from the country or from the slums of the city. His age is that of the average age of the first year of the high school; his preparation is for the third or fourth grade. He may be found in any of the first five grades, and wherever he is found his age is from three to five years older than the average age of his class. If he advances one grade every year with his class, his age on graduation will be from 20 to 25.

On account of his miserable home environment, he has been permitted to grow up in ignorance, and it is from no encouragement from his parents but by that bit of the divine there is in him that he makes a desperate effort to reach up to higher and better things. And, fellow teachers, where do we find him in our schools? Chained to the 6, 7, 8 and 9 year olds, and he must do the same stints they do in the same time they do them in. By our plan of grading and classifying, he will become a voting citizen of the United States before he reaches the high school.

Of necessity his stay with us is limited to two or three years at the utmost; then he must take up the burden of life and help to

relieve the squalid condition at home. Are we honestly doing our duty with this lad, this overgrown muscular giant with fine physique and full of the decision to rise to his full development and self realization? Are we rendering to him justice when we yoke him with those pigmies and settle him down to the same stints and require of him the same extras of the course, along with children who have no other business or use for their time for the next ten years than to get an education? I maintain that it is our plain duty to effect some plan by which these hobblethoys may, in two or three years, learn to read, to write, to cypher, and to spell; that we should in these few years we have them teach them to write a correct letter of application; teach them to approximate the value of daily labor; teach them how to calculate what is due them, and to reckon what they should pay others. We should teach them self-respect; teach them to be well mannered; we should train their hands to win their bread and butter; we should inculcate in them a desire to learn more, and we should teach them how to study. Do not tie these splendid animals down. Let them bound ahead as rapidly as they may. I should recommend for them either a central ungraded school, managed by the superintendent of the city schools, or such a plan of "double promotions" as is operated in Woburn, Mass. This plan provides for the pupil of high ability to accomplish the essentials of the grade in the first half of the year, and be promoted to the next class in the middle of the year, where the same opportunity is afforded them—thus accomplishing two grades in one year. Those that remain in the grade review the work outlined during the first half year, and enter into it, more in detail, so that the time is spent profitably.

From statistics tabulated, we find in the Asheville city schools the following:

Based on the plan of advancing one grade every year, there are 197 children in the first seven grades that would be twenty-one years old and over on graduation from the high school—which has only three grades; 8, 9 and 10 grades. These 197 children constitute 11 per cent of the enrollment. By grades, we find in grade one, 82; grade two, 35; grade three, 30; grade four, 32; grade five, 10; grade six, 9; grade seven, 4.

Fellow educators, let us endeavor to arrive at some means by which these children may make the most of the few years they are with us.

Based on my observation that they are with us only two, three, or four years, what would you recommend?

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

LAWTON B. EVANS, SUPERINTENDENT SCHOOLS, AUGUSTA, GA.

Mr. President:

I have already outlined at length in my paper before the general session of the association the main argument for the Consolidation of Rural Schools and it remains for me at this time to discuss a few of the questions for the use of the enterprising superintendent who desires to do what is best for the children of the rural districts.

The most serious obstacle that confronts one is the opposition that the people feel toward anything that is new. They resent changes and are suspicious of any movement that smacks of progress. In my own experience, I have found great difficulty in persuading the people of my own county to agree to abandon their small schools and allow the children to be consolidated in one large school. In fact, I have found serious and steady opposition to any suggestions made for the radical improvement in the schools. I do not accredit this opposition to a stupidity on their part or even indifference on their part, and certainly not to any personal opposition. It is rather that well-defined persistent sentiment of letting well enough alone, whether that "well enough" is good or bad.

For instance, several years ago, we had a rally of the people on the subject of improved methods in agriculture for rural schools. We were advocating the introduction of plant studies in the schools and possibly the beginning of small planted areas in the neighborhood of the school. We had good speeches on the subject but in spite of our enthusiasm the sentiment of the meeting was that we had better stick to reading, writing and arithmetic and not bother ourselves about that which we're ignorant.

About two years ago we made our first experiment of the transportation of children. It was a small beginning on a small scale. I found a number of objections on the part of the people. These objections were the possibility of the children being hurt in the wagon, the liability of boys fighting each other or imposing on the little girls. It was argued that the driver could not be given authority to enforce order by punishing the disorderly. I also found some jealousies among the patrons arising from the fact that

only one man could get the contract for doing the hauling; whereas there were several who wanted it and those who did not get it were provoked enough not to patronize the one who did. It was further argued that it took so much time to drive the distance required that the children must needs assemble an hour earlier than before at the point of starting to reach the consolidated school in time and this upset the domestic arrangements.

I could not argue the people out of these objections and affairs grew steadily worse till the wagon ceased to be patronized and fell into disuse, after which the plan was abandoned. So the first factor we have to consider in consolidation is *the patron*, and this personal equation is very large and in many instances it is controlling. However, I still think that if we persist in teaching the people what is best and persuading them to try for a while and treating everybody with perfect justice in the matter of contracts, being very careful to secure good wagons and good drivers we can eventually overcome much of the opposition of the people.

The experiment has succeeded elsewhere and the general conditions are that children can be transported a distance of about five miles, and eighteen or twenty can ride in one wagon. These wagons are covered to provide against rain and heat. The driver is always a good, reliable, white man whose personal influence over the children is generally sufficient to keep them in order. It may not be amiss at this point to give you a copy of the notice that was sent out to bidders for transportation of pupils.

It is as follows:

NOTICE TO BIDDERS

Bids for the transportation of pupils over the hereinafter described route will be received by the Trustees of the School District until All bidders will be required to sign a contract to be secured by a bond of one hundred dollars in which they agree:

1st. To furnish a suitable vehicle with sufficient seating capacity to convey all the pupils entitled to ride.

2nd. Said vehicle must have comfortable seats, must be provided with a cover for rainy weather and sufficient robes and blankets to keep the children warm in cold weather.

3rd. To provide a good reliable horse or team of horses or mules and a white driver who is trustworthy and who shall have control of all the pupils while under his charge and shall be responsible for their safety.

4th. He shall start at the beginning of the designated route at o'clock and shall deliver the pupils to the school at o'clock. He shall start from the school at o'clock and deliver the children at

the end of the route by o'clock. This to be done on each school day during the time the contract is in force.

5th. During the school hours the driver of each team shall be required to perform such service around the school grounds and in the school house as can legitimately be required of him except the duties of janitor. He shall be required to haul the fire wood and keep it cut and stacked ready for use. He shall keep the school grounds clean and in order. He shall haul, plant and preserve such trees and shrubbery as are necessary to beautify the school grounds. He shall do what whitewashing is necessary to keep the premises in good appearance. He shall do all the repairing necessary to the school house, such as nailing on boards and shingles, putting in window glass and such other incidental matters as may be required of him. When there is nothing for him to do about the school premises, the driver may occupy his time in whatever way he sees fit.

ROUTE

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The argument in favor of the consolidation of schools and transportation of children has been luminously stated by Mr. A. W. Edson, one of the Massachusetts State Agents, as follows:

1 It permits a better grading of the schools and classification of pupils.

2 It affords an opportunity for thorough work in special branches. Such as drawing, music and nature studies.

3 It generally results in lengthening the school term.

4 It insures the employment and retention of better teachers.

5 It makes the work of the specialist and supervisor more effective.

6 It adds the stimulating influence of large classes, with the resulting enthusiasm and generous rivalry.

7 It affords the broader companionship and culture that comes from association.

8 It results in a better attendance of pupils.

9 It leads to better school buildings, better equipment, a larger supply of books, charts, maps and apparatus.

10 It quickens public interest in the schools.

By referring to the report of the work in the rural schools in Ohio we find that at Kingsville the experiment of consolidation has been carried on with marked success. Since these schools were centralized the incidental expenses have been reduced one-half.

All other expenses were likewise decreased. In another portion of the state the superintendent reports that among the good results which has come under his observation could be mentioned a larger per cent of pupils enrolled, no tardiness among the transported pupils, irregular attendance reduced, no wet feet or clothing, no bad colds, no quarreling, improper language, or bad conduct on the way to and from school. Everywhere in that state the cost of tuition per pupil has been reduced where the schools have been centralized. The average saving has been about one-third.

If we, teachers of the South, can induce our patrons to give a trial to this plan of consolidation we will find that the results will be such as to bring about greater pride and interest of our rural population in the education of their children.

DISCUSSION

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS, BY M. B. DENNIS, EATONTON, GA.

Consolidation is the order of the day. It prevails in almost every branch of our body politic. In its mighty grasp it holds the commercial world and dictates to a helpless people. It wields over the world of politics a scepter strong and unyielding. In its gigantic folds are held, as powerless and submissive as a lamb, the professions of almost every name. In its aggressive strides revolutions are wrought and achievements wonderful accomplished. Its power is unlimited and its possibilities incalculable. As an engine of destruction it is merciless and complete; of helpfulness, a blessing and a benediction. In the hands of zeal, consecrated to public weal, it becomes a wealth of blessing; vice versa, a curse as black as Egyptian darkness.

And now comes a demand for the consolidation of rural schools. And the demand is the natural offspring of conditions. In this, as in other exigencies, "necessity is the mother of invention." Existing rural conditions unfavorable to the proper development of the public school work must be compassed and rendered effective; and to meet this demand, consolidation, with its rich promises of relief, has been brought prominently to the front and urged by leading educators as a remedy par excellence.

By reason of density of population and great aggregation of wealth the cities and larger towns possess conditions that make possible a systematic concentration of educational forces and an economical subdivision of labor that produce the best results, results that are hopelessly unattainable in the country districts in their present and, what might be denominated, normal condition. City consolidation is not the result of force or legal enactment; it already obtains, and its rich advantages are secured and enjoyed without friction, without effort, made possible only by favorable conditions which can not possibly exist in the country, naturally.

Because it does exist naturally in populous centers, no principle is

violated in consequence of city consolidation. In the realization and enjoyment of its benefits, no obnoxious paternalistic methods are practiced to become a menace and stumbling block to the sensitive consciences of burdened tax-payers.

Not so in the country. Movements in rural districts looking to the securing of conditions that will make effective consolidation a possibility, is met with blind opposition from almost every quarter. The fact that the necessary conditions, if secured at all, must be obtained through artificial methods, and by departing from old beaten paths, and at public expense, is ground sufficient to justify the bitterest and most stubborn opposition on the part of the average citizen. And, strange as it may seem, no amount of argument favoring consolidation will for a single moment be considered. It is urged that the children of our forefathers "got along without all this tomfoolery and ours can do without it." They are blind to the promises of improved facilities as a result of consolidation. They refuse to consider the increased thoroughness as to results. They close their eyes to every argument that would show a stronger and more efficient school system in consequence of a judicious consolidation of schools.

These they minify, but the fact that consolidation is secured through the use of methods which they consider objectionable is magnified a thousand-fold. And why objectionable? Is it because any standard of propriety or principle will be violated? Is it because any methods will be inaugurated more paternalistic than those already underlying the free school system? Nay, verily. Not these; but, reduced to its last analysis, it is because the old ruts must be abandoned, new methods inaugurated.

What unfavorable conditions do we find in rural districts demanding a change that would be remedied by consolidation? Most counties have too many schools—some of them twice too many. As a result of this the following unhealthy conditions obtain:

- 1 The enrollment in many instances is too small for the best work. Nothing is more devoid of wholesome results than a small one-teacher school lacking in interest; wanting in enthusiasm, and without any lively competition among pupils. The teacher, ever so alive on assuming control of such a school, if he remains there any length of time, will die of inertia. A school so small as not to require the enforcement of disciplinary regulations looking to good order and system is largely a failure and can not turn out men and women who will fight the battles of life successfully. Consolidation will remedy this.

- 2 The fund prorated among so large a number of principals reduces the salary of each to a point below the possibility of employing the best talent. The country districts are thus rendered powerless to compete with the cities and larger towns in employing teachers and, as a consequence, the better class of teachers turn their backs upon the country when searching for employment. Consolidation will remedy this.

- 3 The number of school houses to be built and kept in repair is entirely greater than good business economy would require. Fewer school buildings and better ones, fitted with proper furniture and apparatus, would be more in accord with the spirit of the times, and consolidation will secure this.

4 The employment of more than one teacher for a single school is impossible, as well as impracticable, under the present system. The need for more than one may not be appreciated by the great bulk of the people, for the want of information bearing upon the detailed workings of the schools; but, all the same, the need exists, and constitutes one of the most serious problems connected with the work. The average country teacher may not have more than twenty-five or thirty pupils enrolled, but the number of classes to be heard each day will not allow more than eight to ten minutes to each class in recitation.

As a rule an enrollment of twenty-five to thirty pupils means at least seven grades, and with eight branches to teach, each grade reciting five recitations a day, it means thirty-five daily recitations. No one finite being can take a school of this sort and do justice to either himself or pupils. And yet such conditions must be tolerated, because after each county's quota is divided among so many schools, each receives barely enough to employ *one* teacher. Consolidation is the remedy for this.

5 Under the present plan the uniform classification and gradation of pupils is impossible. The variety of conditions in these particulars is limited only by the number of individual schools. A one-teacher first-class country graded school, then, as a rule, is impossible. In other words, without a change in our present system to meet the rural conditions that are unfavorable to consolidation, the country schools need never hope to approach the city schools, but must be content to plod along at a distance considerably in the rear.

Viewed, then, from any standpoint not beclouded with prejudice, it must be conceded that consolidation of country schools is of vast importance. Upon it depends the success and efficiency of these schools. Upon it depends the proper and thorough instruction of the country children. Upon it hinges the correction of most of the evils with which our school system today is afflicted. Upon it depends the possibility of graded schools in the country.

How, then, can consolidation be secured and made practicable? *The transportation of children to and from school will secure it.* Transportation, then, becomes at once and completely the solution of the question. In its workings in this and other states it has proven practicable and satisfactory, and has completely answered every argument against it. Its permanent inauguration is a matter of short time. Why, then, retard by opposition and doubt the approach of that which is inevitable?

DISCUSSION

MISS JENNIE F. FORD, DIRECTOR OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE, GEORGIA NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, MILLEDGEVILLE

Domestic Science is no new thing of which women need to be shy or afraid. Science being simply organized knowledge, it follows that Domestic Science has existed ever since there have been well organized and systematically managed households. All that there is new about the Domestic Science is its more thoroughly organized attempt to put within the

reach of the many home-makers the knowledge and skill heretofore possessed by the fortunate few who were supposed to be "to the manner born;" to introduce business methods and labor-saving appliances into the household; to bring about more healthful living, a wiser expenditure of income, and a more attractive home life; and to dignify the whole subject of home-making by bringing to bear upon its problems all the knowledge and mental discipline which our girls have received in the various lines of their school training. Chemistry and Physics have a more intimate connection with the preparation of food and the sanitation of the home, but Art, Geography, English and Arithmetic all contribute their share toward making a well rounded study of the whole. It is quite as much the duty of the woman to administer wisely the income, as it is the duty of the man to provide that income, and anything which gives dignity and "worth-while-ness" to this administration and renders it more intelligent and effective, is doing a large share toward making of the home a great moral and social force in our civilization. Domestic Science in doing all this makes happier homes and better and more efficient home-makers, and for this reason should play a much larger part in the training of our girls than it now does.

With present conditions and present public sentiment the speediest and wisest way of making the value of this training felt is to give the greater share of attention to the food question, and to center the work around the wise planning, the proper preparation and the attractive serving of meals. Under the wise planning comes knowledge of the composition of foods, their uses in the body, the amount of each nutrient necessary, and the cost of the meal. Under the proper preparation of the meal is embraced the making and care of a fire, the chemical and physical changes produced by different degrees of heat, and the different ways in which the cooking of food may help or hinder digestion. Under the attractive serving of the meal are unlimited opportunities for cultivating the girl's sense of order, of neatness, of beauty and of the fitness of things. Besides all this, the knowledge coming to her now for the first time, fully, that she has created something for the service of others, and that she is a useful member of society is worth more to her, practically and ethically, than years of study simply for her own intellectual improvement. In the Georgia Normal and Industrial College the girls in the Domestic Science classes plan, prepare and serve eighteen or twenty meals during their year of instruction, each meal being planned with a limited amount of money—a dollar serving twelve people for luncheon or breakfast and two dollars serving the same number for dinner. The girls themselves have the entire management of the meals, planning the table decorations, inviting their guests, serving the dishes which they themselves cook, acting as host and hostess, etc. The guests are invited from the faculty and the citizens of the town and no social functions in the place have their invitations more highly honored than these.

The results have been surprisingly encouraging, and each of these girls goes back to her home in country or village as an apostle of better conditions of living, and her own home, when she enters into that kingdom, can not fail to be a forcible object lesson in those better and more healthful conditions.

*MANUAL TRAINING—ITS TRUE MEANING AND ITS
INFLUENCE AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION*

E. E. UTTERBACK, DIRECTOR OF MANUAL TRAINING, ATLANTA
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Manual training is essentially a method of instruction—a *means* of development. In its native form it is as old as the human race. In its broadest sense it comprehends all the outward, material manifestations of civilization. It is that action and interaction between the mental and physical worlds. It is that outward, concrete, material reflection of the inner self, and as such it is also a means of creating new impressions and bringing new and additional knowledge to the mind. It is both a means of reception and expression. In adult life it is the building of homes and churches, factories and office buildings, railways and means of rapid communication, and the general improvement of all the conditions under which we live, and move, and have our being. And these are the instruments through and by means of which we attain to a higher stage of civilization. They are instrumentalities in society. They are the most lasting, the most perfectly developed concrete manifestations of that selfhood inherent within the life of every individual, and which I conceive it the duty of the school to foster and to develop in the life of every child.

In early childhood manual training is this same working out of the inner self, but by means of games and plays, and in terms of material, concrete creations—such as the personification of papa, mamma, doctor, merchant, fireman, and the building and furnishing of the play-house, the dressing and rocking of the doll, the baking of small pies and cakes, rolling the hoop, playing in the sand, riding the stick, lining up chairs for a street car or train, making tops, kites, wagons, wheelbarrows and a thousand other activities characteristic of all healthy, normal children. In the formal or school process of education it may mean the representation of material, physical conditions, as the modeling of mountains, rivers and valleys in sand or clay, for the purpose of making a more comprehensive study of the influence of these conditions upon the climate and the settlement of the country, and upon the progress and advancement of the people who inhabit it. It may mean the drawing or the construction in miniature form of the

houses and conditions under which the early settlers of our country lived, or the building of forts and other means of defense. It may also mean the making of articles of utility for the school or the individual pupil, or it may mean the working out of ways and means by which certain achievements may be wrought; but whatever else it may mean it always does mean the development within the child of both the motive and the capacity to do something—to perform its function as an active, influential, and uplifting force in society. And this tendency toward an outward manifestation of the inner self is not unlike the one just observed in adult life; indeed the two are one and the same tendency which runs throughout the entire life of all individuals, and which varies only in degree as marked in time and measured by the capacity of the individual doer.

Professor Richards, of the Columbia University, says that "a large part of the life of the boy and girl of the elementary school is still concerned with the gathering of impressions of the material world, and that it is the reflection of these impressions that fills the imagination and fixes the ideas of this period. Also, that these ideas and images tend to flow out in objective, tangible, and concrete creations; that this giving out is but another phase of the coming in—a natural and inevitable reaction that is part of the life-current; and further, if we put these facts together, and have come to any sympathetic knowledge of young girl and boy life, we realize that all this means that such creations are absolutely essential to the full expression of the mental life of the boys and girls of this age, and that, if we leave these out of the school room we are leaving out, at the same time, a large part of the life natural and essential to such children."

We see then, that this matter of *doing* as well as thinking is a necessary quality of both the in-school and out-of-school life of every individual, and well may we be surprised that such a strong educational force has, until recently, been omitted from the school work of so many cities and communities. Does child-life so utterly change at this period that it needs no connection with physical environment? And should the school really be a literal abstraction, separate and apart from all other living, social activities? It seems to me that we can not raise such questions when we see that the progress and advancement of civilization are so beholden to the evolution of the physical, material world, and what an enormously important influence hand work plays in the mental

development of the child, and as a necessary means of happiness and support throughout life.

I believe that one of the most necessary reforms is that of making the life of the school more real, more natural, "more an epitome of that kind of thinking, feeling, and doing that obtains in real life," and to do this—to attempt to reproduce real life our boys and girls of the elementary school, without the element of hand work, is like an attempt to teach a moral with the element of righteousness omitted. I believe that the school should be so real, so natural, and so closely related to the leading elements of society that there would be an insensible blending from the purely symbolic in early childhood to the natural and real in adult life; and I believe that it is quite possible to make it such. I do not believe that the manual training feature alone makes the school ideal, but I do believe that its embodiment is a long step in that direction.

Some people would have what they call the fundamental principles of education—reading, writing, and arithmetic, taught in an abstract, parrot-like manner, and would have the memory loaded down with a multitude of facts, acquired in the same way, and this they would call education. But as I understand it, education is that qualification or development of the individual that enables him to fully realize his identity. In the child it is the process of developing all those powers which will make him an upright, honorable, helpful, and happy man; which will fit him to live well the life which is his, "to live a life worth living, to help himself and others to such living," to develop the capacity for happiness and the means of securing it. In short, it is the development of that strength of character which wields an irresistible influence for the establishment of every thing that is good and the elimination of every thing that is evil.

In the language of Dr. Butler, it is "the adaptation of a person, a self-conscious being, to environment, and the development of capacity in a person to control that environment."

The entire process by means of which this end is secured, when it is secured at all, involves the entire life of the individual from the time he enters this world until this end has been attained. Thus, the educational process includes not only the child's training and experiences in school, but also all of its experiences out of school. In other words, the educational process is simply the contact of the individual with his environment, and the action and reaction of the one upon the other. This environment we find to

be, on the one hand, the physical world with all its known and unknown facts and forces and on the other the crystalized results of human thought and activity known as civilization.

Of all this great complex, the school is only a part. It is an attempt to weave into one grand unit only those elements of environment which wield a strong influence for the realization of the ideal end which we have just named; and, while it is not supposed that the school can do all that is to be done in educating the child, it is believed that the ideal school, or the nearest possible approach to the ideal school, will reflect the larger or dominating influence in the process of education.

In both the Horace Mann School of New York, and the Institute of Chicago, all the fundamental, leading elements of society are brought into and made a part of the regular school work. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught more effectively and made more permanently a part of the child's apperception and inner power than has ever been done through the old methods of isolation and abstraction. Ideas are developed in their natural relation to all other ideas, and principles are taught when the child feels a real living demand for them. In both of these schools the pupils are taught to *do* as well as to think; they are made executive as well as reflective beings, and become "not only responsively but also suggestively cooperative with teachers and parents, so that they become coworkers, not followers, and creative instead of imitative agents." Likewise, in all the really progressive schools, manual training is made a leading feature because it is known to be one of the most powerful and effective agencies for developing both knowledge and capacities.

To serve well such a purpose, however, this method must be used in the right way. Much harm has been done by teachers who have attempted to follow definite, fixed courses or series of exercises, requiring the pupils to work out a certain number of models, and in regular order—this order being determined partially by the difficulties involved in the construction of the objects, but largely by the tools to be used in their construction. This again is a mistake since it resolves the whole matter into a subject of instruction rather than a mode of studying subjects.

While the child should be allowed to make whatever he chooses to make, it is the duty of the teacher to so influence his selection or to simplify his designs in such way that the difficulties arising in their construction will not be too great for him to overcome, count-

ing, of course, on a reasonable amount of help from the teacher. Whenever this is done the child gets the greatest possible benefit from the exercise because he does *both the thinking and the doing* and, working on something in which he feels a genuine interest—something which will contribute to his welfare or to the improvement of the school; he is going to do his best to put into the construction of the article that degree of accuracy which he conceives to be necessary to its success. By granting to the pupil the privilege of selection, the right of initiation, we meet the demands of his nature at this time and make conditions most favorable for vigorous mental growth; and by this means also do we secure the best possible correlation of hand work with arithmetic, history, reading, geography, etc., for, when the child is really interested in these studies, and is permitted to do so, he works out and vivifies many of his ideas in some sort of material form. It may be by means of drawing, painting, modeling or construction, but whatever may be the medium or channel the process is manual training. In its relation to the child it is both a means of reception and expression. From the teacher's point of view it is a mode or method of teaching—a means of developing the child, and it is this relation of method to subject that determines the extent to which the grade teacher is a manual training teacher. She is not a manual training teacher in the commonly accepted meaning of the term, but she is a teacher who uses manual training as a mode or method of developing the mind and character of the child.

It is a mistake to suppose that there should be a special teacher whose only duty it is to instruct the pupils in all the manual activities. Even if such were an economy of time and money it would be pedagogically wrong because such a teacher can not meet the psychological requirements. The only natural and perfect correlation of manual expression with mental impression can be wrought by the regular teacher for she is the only one who can know absolutely the conditions under which mental impressions and their corresponding impulses for self-realization arise and therefore is the only person competent to judge of their educational value.

DUTIES OF THE SUPERVISOR

The supervisor should spare no efforts to help and inspire the teachers in the work—first leading them to see and to understand the highest purpose of manual training as a factor in education, pointing out instances wherein it is naturally and effect-

ively related to the regular school work, and, whenever he sees it will be helpful to the teacher he should take charge of her class and give a practical demonstration of the laws he has set forth. His work is largely with the body of teachers, but he should also visit the schools, talk to the individual teacher, inspire the pupils, see what they are doing and how they are doing it, and offer suggestions whenever they are needed.

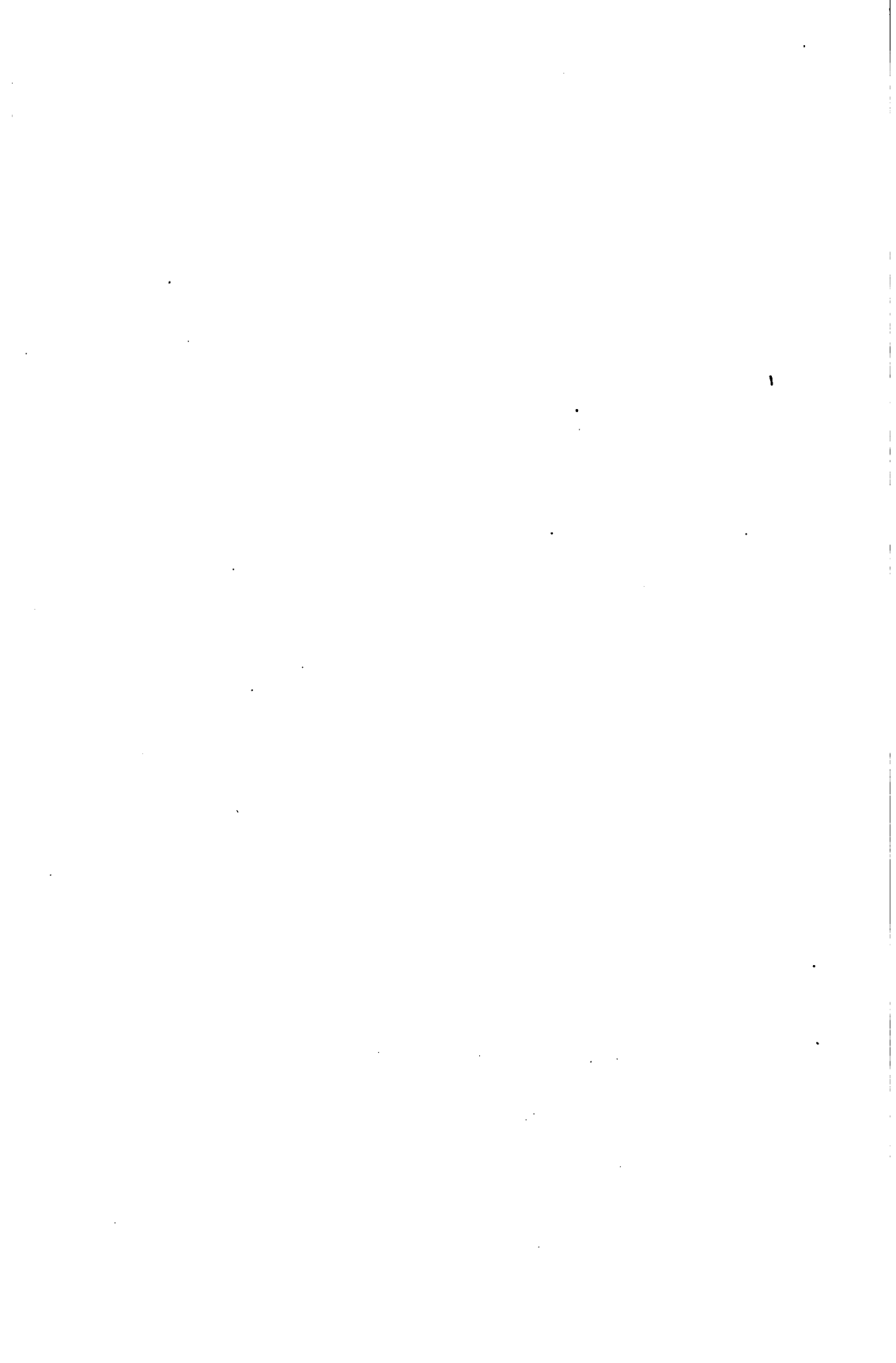
MANUAL TRAINING IN THE COLORED SCHOOLS

From the standpoint of development, there can be no difference between the processes of education for the negro and the white person, but from the viewpoint of practical utility and the social positions of the two races in adult life, it is my opinion that the course of study in the negro schools should be based very largely upon the manual training idea, and that the number work, spelling, writing, reading, composition and science should be the direct outgrowth of such operations as measuring, modeling, making, sewing and cooking, reinforced by a limited number of abstract, but related operations.

Because of the inevitable vocation of a very large per cent of the colored population of the South, the children of this race should unquestionably receive early and constant training which will develop in them both the motive and ability to do the work which we all know is ahead of them. The principal distinction, then, between the manual training in the white and colored schools, is the position it would occupy in the course of study. In the former it should be purely a method of teaching, in the latter more nearly a subject of study; and such arrangement would be, I believe, a long step toward the solution of the existing social problem.

The schools as they have been, and as many of them are today, fail to prepare the colored children for domestic work or mechanical labor, and these children are unable to learn such things at home because their parents are not there to teach them, and, even if they were, they would be either disinclined or incompetent to train them in such way that they would be able to meet the requirements of the white people for whom a very large per cent of them are to work as soon as they become physically able.

The unsatisfactory results of nearly forty years of the old methods of teaching ought to stir the American citizen to that point of activity where he will demand that there be a change for something more real, more concrete, more productive of those elements that stand for success, for progress and advancement in adult life.



DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session—Columbia Theatre, Friday, December 27, 2:30 P. M.

The departments of Higher Education and Secondary Education held their meetings together, President Charles W. Dabney, of the department of Higher Education, presiding.

Chancellor W. B. Hill, of the University of Georgia, read a paper on "The Relation of the Universities and Colleges to the Public Schools."

This paper was discussed by Dr. Penniman, Dean of the University of Pennsylvania, whose special thesis was that the gap between the different departments of education could be bridged only by sympathy and cooperation.

President Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University, read a paper on "What Should the Southern Secondary Schools Attempt in Science Teaching?"

On motion of President Remsen the following officers were re-elected:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

President—Chas. W. Dabney, Knoxville, Tenn.

Vice-President—Edwin A. Alderman, New Orleans, La.

Secretary—W. B. Smith, New Orleans, La.

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

President—S. A. Mynders, Jackson, Tenn.

Vice-President—Robert Bingham, Asheville, N. C.

Secretary—Isoline Rodd, New Orleans, La.

H. N. SNYDER,

Acting Secretary.

(These two departments held meetings together on Saturday afternoon, December 28, but no minutes of this meeting have been sent in).

SCIENCE TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PRESIDENT IRA REMSEN, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

The subject assigned to me is, What Should the Southern Secondary Schools attempt in Science Teaching? It does not seem to me that a distinction need be made between Southern

schools and other schools. The principles involved are the same whether the schools are situated in the South or North, East or West, and it will be best to state the fundamental principles that should guide those who have to deal with this work.

The attempt will be made to give answers to four questions :

1 What are science studies as distinguished from other studies?

2 What ought science studies to accomplish?

3 How far do science studies accomplish what they are intended to accomplish?

4 How can science courses be improved?

1 What are science studies as distinguished from other studies?

Science studies are, or ought to be, distinguished from all other kinds of study by the fact that they bring the pupil in direct contact with the things or phenomena he is studying. He is called upon to use his own eyes and his own mind. There is a direct connection between statements he may make and facts that he himself knows to be true as a result of his own experience. In their first stages, in their simplest forms, this should be the most prominent feature of science studies. Any course of study that depends largely upon what a lecturer may say or upon what he may read in a book can never be a science course, no matter what the subject, no matter how good the lecturer or how good the book. The essential feature of directness is lacking. So also the emphasizing of the theories of a science, no matter how important those theories may be or how well they may be established, should not play an important part in a science course in its early stages. So far as this fact may be lost sight of the course is not scientific. It is not scientific, for example, to present and discuss the atomic theory in an elementary course in chemistry, or the electromagnetic theory of light in an elementary course in physics, or the nebular hypothesis in the early part of any course. The pupil must first learn how knowledge is acquired by direct study. This lesson must be impressed upon his mind before he can profitably take up the profound thoughts to which scientific investigators have gradually been led—thoughts which are based upon an immense accumulation of facts learned by the process of direct contact.

It is obvious that however valuable other kinds of study may be (and nobody denies their value) they lack this feature of direct contact with the things or the phenomena studied.

Take language studies for example. In these, plainly, emphasis is necessarily laid upon words singly and in combination. The danger in this is that the pupil will come to magnify the importance of words as such, and to look upon the ability to use words skilfully as an end in itself. The glib talker, the shallow and voluminous writer are not unknown, and to some extent they are encouraged in our schools and colleges.

Again, take mathematics. Perhaps no subject is better adapted to the development of the purely logical faculty. But it lacks the feature of direct contact, and an exclusive course in mathematics would tend to magnify the importance of symbols and purely mental processes. The pupil can not clearly see where the body of knowledge he is dealing with comes from, and he is obliged to accept the statements of his teachers or his books as final. He does not acquire his knowledge at first hand.

In history the sources of information are still farther removed from the observation of the pupil. He has to learn statements about matters that even the writer of the book he is studying had obtained from other books.

2 What ought science studies to accomplish?

It is generally said that the object of science studies should be to develop the powers of observation. That is true, but it is far from being the whole truth. There are other ways of developing this power, perhaps better than by pursuing elementary courses in science. Life on a farm or life out of doors in any way tends in this direction. The savage probably has the keenest powers of observation possessed by any members of the human race. He gets his knowledge and his power, not by studying books, but by direct contact with the things around him; that is, by the scientific method. Science courses should teach more than the power to observe. They should teach how to draw conclusions. They should lead to a scientific state of mind. By this is meant a state of mind that enables the possessor of it to take the most direct, the simplest, course in dealing with any problem that may be submitted to him; that enables him to see through the mere talker, through shams, and to go back to the facts and draw his conclu-

sions from them; that enables him to discriminate between what is known and what is imagined.

3 How far do science studies accomplish what they are intended to accomplish?

This is a very difficult question to answer. Probably the average course in science has comparatively little effect in the way of putting the pupil in a scientific state of mind. Still, if this kind of study is right in principle, and in regard to this there can probably be no doubt, the pupil ought to have at least a taste of it. Some pupils will, of course, be much more benefited than others. Some will be inspired by this kind of work. No one can be harmed by it. If the courses were what they ought to be, all the pupils ought to be, and probably would be, benefited by them. The ideal course would be one in which the pupil should make daily observations and should spend a certain amount of time in reflecting upon what he has observed, and then from time to time he should be led to see the connection between his own observations and some of the important generalizations that have been reached, which taken together form the groundwork of the sciences.

Now, all this can not be accomplished by turning the pupil loose in the laboratory and letting him experiment without supervision. The questioning teacher is necessary in order that good results may be reached. The teacher has a splendid opportunity. Questions in regard to work done in the laboratory are of much more value than questions on matters studied from books or heard in lectures. If this kind of work should be carried on faithfully for a sufficient length of time, and the mind of the pupil be not clogged by other things, he should be, and would be, benefited by it. We have, however, no means of judging what the results would be, for such ideal courses are practically unknown. At present, in most places, science courses play a very minor part. What the effect would be of increasing the amount of time devoted to these courses no one can tell. I believe they are coming into greater and greater prominence as time passes, and I believe that this is to the advantage of the pupils.

4 How can science courses be improved?

Some ways by which these courses can be improved in general have already been pointed out. What is most needed is that

the courses should be made more scientific. Everything that is labeled scientific is not necessarily scientific. Indeed, some of the most unscientific courses I have ever known have been called scientific. Studying chemistry by listening to a lecturer and seeing him do things, or by reading a book, may be scientific as far as it goes, but is more likely to be most unscientific. Even experimenting in a laboratory is not necessarily scientific. Imperfect observations of complex phenomena, and the writing of statements supposed to be based upon what has been seen, but really drawn largely from the printed laboratory guide—these processes are not scientific, and they cannot lead to good results. They are more likely to do harm than good, as they involve waste of time and give false impressions in regard to scientific methods.

The proper guidance of science courses demands the constant attention of the teacher; and, further, the teacher must have a full appreciation of what is meant by the scientific method. Such teachers are rare, whether in school, or college, or university. Undoubtedly the teachers of languages and mathematics are, in general, better fitted for their work than the teachers of science. It seems to me that what is most needed in our science courses is greater simplicity. The simpler phenomena should be studied so that the pupil's mind may be able to cope with the things he sees. And so, too, the thoughts presented to him should be simple. He should really understand what he is doing and what he is talking about. If he shows a tendency to use words or symbols without being able to explain what he means, he should be corrected, just as if the course were one in language or in mathematics.

In regard to the laboratory work which must be the basis of science courses, more care should be given by the teacher to secure good work. The pupil should be compelled to avoid slovenliness. A bad piece of apparatus is as bad as a bad piece of grammar or a bad mathematical demonstration. And then, in telling the story of his work, orally or in writing, the pupil should be held responsible for faults in language as well as in observation. Accuracy is an important feature of scientific work, and this the pupil should be led to feel.

GYMNASTICS AND ATHLETICS

WALTER LECONTE STEVENS, WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY

INTRODUCTION

There is an oft repeated saying that the development of the individual is a miniature reproduction of the development of the race. Our remote ancestors were savages, muscular and blood-thirsty. Each individual lived and died a savage, but the average son gradually rose above the condition of the average father, out of savagery into barbarism, and thence by slow steps into civilization. In like manner young human beings, or at least a large proportion of one sex, manifest the barbaric qualities of cruelty and destructiveness, enjoying the infliction of pain for its own sake, and reveling in such sports as the destruction of property belonging to others. The sense of personal responsibility is of slow growth, and is even repressed by fond parents who indulge in the excusing platitude, "Boys will be boys," just as bears will be bears. The young savage has often within 50 years developed into the humane philanthropist.

SPORT AND WORK

Man lives in proportion to his activity. Whether young or old, we must keep busy. If our activity is exerted for the pleasure it gives, and for this alone, we call it sport; if for some recognized useful purpose, we call it work. The demand for sport is as natural and imperative, especially among the young, as the demand for food. We are moreover gregarious beings; and that we should sympathize with the sports as well as the labors of our fellowmen is as right as it is natural. From the dawn of history men have been gathering together, not merely for mutual aid in the maintenance of life and the acquisition of advantage, but for indulgence in sport.

In every educational scheme, therefore, and in every social system, allowance must be made in behalf of this universal demand for sport. The activities of the young may indeed be directed in some degree, but as soon as this direction takes the form of control the element of spontaneity vanishes, and sport becomes changed into work. There is, it is true, no sharp division line

between sport and work. What is initially sport may become tiresome until it becomes work. Labor that is initially distasteful loses its wearisome character if it is increasingly successful and brings desired rewards. The successful student, whether in the classroom or on the athletic field, soon learns to enjoy what brings the approbation of his friends, and the element of spontaneity becomes rapidly developed. The veriest bookworm may become a devotee to the sport of writing Latin verses or of working problems in higher mathematics, provided only that he works successfully, and that his success becomes widely known and acknowledged. In all successful education, therefore, work becomes gradually transformed into sport. It may be so highly specialized that the circle of appreciators is small, as in the case of the mathematical prodigy, or it may be as popular and vulgar as the contests of the prize-fighting bully; but in either case spontaneity is what makes sport.

DEFINITION OF GYMNASTICS AND ATHLETICS

For the present, however, it may be permissible to limit the significance of this term so as to make it apply only to those forms of sport which involve bodily exercise. If the activity is systematically directed, with a view to discipline or training for the sake of attaining skill or physical strength, with the implied accompaniments of good health and pleasure, we may call it gymnastics. If the aim is individual or collective victory in a contest, it is athletics. The difference is essentially one of aim. The first of these two kinds of sport is directly educative; the second only indirectly so. The two can never be entirely separated. In preparing for an intercollegiate athletic contest the candidate for honors is compelled to attain both strength and skill, and he must be a model of robust health, if his brow is to be crowned with the laurel of victory. The well trained gymnast may be more completely developed than the football specialist, and his chances for future health and long life may be far better; but he is not an athlete unless he becomes a contestant. It is not desirable that training should be given without contests. Rivalry within rational bounds is quite natural and proper. In discussing gymnastics and athletics in contrast with each other, if either be properly an object of adverse criticism it is not on its own account, but on account of objectionable adjuncts which experience has shown to be invariably developed under the conditions of American college life.

ANCIENT AND MODERN ATHLETICS

If time were unlimited it might be interesting to trace the development of athletics into its more highly organized form, gymnastics, by examining well into its history. A mere glance is all that can be afforded. Among the ancient Greeks the Olympic games were instituted entirely for the sake of sport. They were exclusively athletic; and they were aristocratic, in that none but the upper classes were admitted to competition. In the time of Pericles the aims became largely educative; but subsequently they degenerated into the worst kind of professionalism. In the middle ages such games were revived under the name of tournaments, in which the contestants were still limited to the aristocracy, and the contests were largely on horseback. But as time wore on they became more popularized, and in England they were largely practiced in connection with church services on Sunday. The church was thus closely associated with the development of athletics. The oldest of the great English public schools, Eton and Winchester, were initially adjuncts of the church. Athletic games naturally became customary, and to engage in them was practically an obligation upon every boy. It has been said that "English school boys play at their work and work at their play." Such a remark is now equally true of the majority of American school boys, if they are compared with school boys on the continent of Europe. In English schools gymnastics has never gained much foothold except as a means of preparing the younger boys for athletic contests from which they are necessarily excluded on account of insufficient growth. But so universal is the practice of field sports in England that every boy in good health not only has the opportunity but is constrained to take abundant physical exercise. The essential difference between ancient and modern athletics is thus seen to be that the former was exclusive and aristocratic, the latter thoroughly democratic.

ORIGIN OF GYMNASTICS

The Greeks were devoted to ideals of beauty and grace. Among them athletics, apart from the pleasure of competition, was a potent means of cultivating manly beauty. But this idea died out with the political decay of that people. It was not until about the time of the American revolution that a revival took place which resulted in the recognition of a possible educative function that might be performed by the practice of physical exercise. Interest

seems to have been thus aroused for the first time by that brilliant writer, J. J. Rousseau, who in his popular novel, *Emile*, unfolded his ideas on education. They took root especially among the Germans, one of whose educators, Guths Muths, wrote in 1793 the first manual of gymnastics, in which he defined this as "work in the garb of youthful pleasure and merriment." The same idea was developed and extended by Pestalozzi, who is often mentioned as the father of popular education; by Froebel, the originator of the kindergarten; and by Jahn, who is often called the "father of turning," the German word for bodily training being "Turnen." Jahn, who was much inclined to political agitation, opened the first "Turnplatz," or athletic field, near Berlin in 1811, and organized the first "Turnverein," or gymnastic society, in which his object was to educate young men in patriotism through the medium of bodily exercises systematically conducted. He invented many pieces of apparatus such as the parallel and horizontal bars, and originated a great variety of new exercises. The commingling of gymnastics with politics resulted in the forcible abolition of gymnastic societies in Germany in 1820; but in 1842 the king of Prussia gave his sanction to the combined recommendation of his ministers, that "bodily exercises should be acknowledged formally as a necessary and indispensable integral part of male education, and should be adopted as an agency in the education of the people."

GERMAN GYMNASTICS

The Germans as a people are nothing if not earnest, patient and thorough. The worship of education is one of their national characteristics, as much as so-called "hustling" is an American characteristic. The young student of geography who wrote in his examination paper "The principal industries of Germany are manufacturing, agriculture, and the cultivation of the intellect," was quite as near the truth as his friend who wrote "The principal products of the United States is earthquakes and volcanoes." The Germans are fond of gymnastics; the Americans adore football. The Germans have their gymnastic societies, their "Turnvereine," established in every city and almost every small town; the Americans have their football elevens, who hustle from college to college in quest of victory. Between 1859 and 1862 the number of German Turnvereine increased from 240 to 1,280. In 1896 there were over 6,000 such societies, with a total membership of over 500,000, of whom more than half were active. In nearly 5,000

localities there was thus one active gymnast over 14 years of age, for every 108 of the population; or nearly one per cent of all persons, including young and old, rich and poor, male and female. In the German lower schools, their military barracks, and their high schools corresponding to the average American colleges, gymnastics is cultivated systematically as a regular part of the education of youth. That it is not regarded by the pupils as irksome is proved by the great popularity of the gymnastic societies in which these young men become assiduous members. The practical effect is seen in the wonderful athletic power of the average German soldier, whose physical superiority to his French neighbor across the Rhine was abundantly demonstrated in the short war that culminated in 1870 at Sedan.

INTRODUCTION OF GYMNASTICS IN AMERICA

The influence of German universities upon American education has been universally recognized to be strong, especially during the last third of a century. But nowhere can the customs of one country, whether educational or otherwise, be dominated by those of another. American university education has gradually developed an individuality of its own, which is largely an index of the character of our people. It is naturally to be expected that we should gradually evolve an American method of physical training, as well as an American type of intellectual education.

Between 1820 and 1880 several American colleges, chiefly through German influences, established gymnasiums on their grounds for the purpose of encouraging the students to take physical exercise. Dr. Francis Lieber, a favorite pupil of Jahn at Berlin, came to America in 1827 to take charge of a recently founded gymnasium in Boston. In 1835 he became a professor in the South Carolina college at Columbia, where he remained more than 20 years. Under his influence was erected on the grounds of this college a crude gymnasium in open air, probably the first of its kind at the South. It was there that the present writer began in boyhood the gymnastic training which has formed the basis of his subsequent good health in life thus far. Lieber is better known for his masterly work on political ethics and civil liberty than for his advocacy of gymnastics. The keynote of his political writings, "No right without its duties—no duty without its rights," is one which is perhaps as applicable to education as to politics.

VALUE OF SYSTEM IN BODILY TRAINING

The interest in physical education which had begun to spread in the United States prior to 1860 was destroyed almost entirely by the civil war. With the close of the war came a general demand for military training in schools. This is altogether wholesome, not so much for what students may learn of military science or tactics as for the systematic outdoor exercise which it implies. All school boys, unless excused for good reason on a physician's certificate, should be required to take regular and systematic outdoor exercise when the weather permits, and indoor exercise when that out of doors is impossible. The great advantage of the military feature is the substitution of regularity and system in place of sporadic outbursts. The student who is most in need of physical training is the one that under the voluntary system is sure to shun it. The weak, the ill-balanced, the book-worm, the effeminate, these are the ones who naturally avoid exercises in which they are conscious of their inferiority. The school boy who is healthy and strong needs no stimulus beyond the consciousness of success. His acknowledged leadership makes it certain that his body will not be neglected; and the barbaric phase in boy nature incites him to be either occasionally or habitually a bully over his weaker associates. The influence of systematic training, whether in the gymnasium or on the drill ground, tends toward equalization; toward building up the weak and holding the strong under equitable restraint. The weak will naturally find such training irksome at first; and to the strong and unruly, restraint is always irksome. But the educative value of such training in doing the greatest good to the greatest number is far preferable to that of dependence upon voluntary participation in outdoor games. Under rational restriction these games should receive abundant encouragement as sport. But much of the time given to physical training ought to be under competent direction, so as to secure its benefits to those who are most in need of it. This implies steady and firm discipline, to which the average American boy is averse. In his opposition to it he is probably the most chronically successful rebel of his age in the civilized world.

RISE OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

During the first few years after the civil war the student body in most American colleges was strongly influenced, if not led, by the contingent of young men who had been subjected to strenuous physical training in active military service. Of gymnastics they

knew nothing; of military drill they wanted no more. Baseball became the favorite American sport, and in all cases where a college was situated near a suitable body of water boating became popular. The natural consequence was the concentration of popular interest upon the few who could demonstrate superior skill. Contests were at first for the most part local only; but it was most natural for a winning baseball team or a winning boat crew to sigh, like Alexander, for new worlds to conquer. Intercollegiate boat racing indeed began as early as 1852, and during the half century that has intervened the course of evolution has developed a widespread mania for intercollegiate contests of all kinds. With it the educative value of physical training has become a consideration of but little importance. Intercollegiate rivalry has introduced a veritable new religion, that of so-called college spirit. In this the cardinal doctrine is that of the all-sufficient efficacy of vicarious muscular exercise. The priest is the captain of the athletic team, and to him and his associates on the team the great mass of the students resign all responsibility for their physical salvation, apart from such sanctification as may be implied in vocal exercises on the athletic field. Every religion, moreover, has been found to require money for the maintenance of its leaders. This money must come from either the general public, or the students themselves and such others as they can influence in the name of college spirit. Indeed this demand has become one of the most serious sources of embarrassment to students whose parents are not wealthy; and to this class belong the great majority of Southern students. It is easy to call such contributions voluntary; but the student who fails to volunteer is branded as either mean or deficient in college spirit. The appeal is often made to the professors; and the popularity of a professor is well known to depend largely upon the sympathy with student enterprises that he may manifest. The select few who compose the college team are regarded as the representative trustees of college honor. Their victory is the glory of the college; their defeat is its disgrace, or, to say the least, its grievous misfortune. Not only must the expense of suitable clothing, food and equipment be met, but professional trainers must be secured at prices many times in excess of that deemed suitable for the most competent college professor. The intercollegiate match often implies the journeying of the entire team, with an escort of substitutes, over hundreds or even thousands of miles, for which provision must be secured before the

start is made. The function of the business manager becomes thus quite as important as that of the captain. In the report of the manager of athletics at Harvard university for the year just ended the receipts are summed up as \$117,317, the expenditures \$78,238, leaving a net profit of \$39,078. The balance due to football was \$36,192, a sum in excess of the annual income of the average Southern college.

ATHLETICS A BUSINESS

Intercollegiate athletics has thus developed into a regular business, for the successful conduct of which the athletic manager must exercise all the foresight and astuteness of the traveling theatrical manager. He must make his appointments with careful regard to the probable receipts of gate money. He must advertise his attractions so as to draw the largest crowds. An invariable and inevitable accompaniment of the contests is a large amount of betting, and where the game is played in or near a large city the professional gambler is much in evidence. The financial exhibit recently made by the Harvard manager is exceptionally successful. It would be impossible except where great density of population facilitates the gathering of large crowds. The recent Yale-Harvard football game for the championship of New England was played in the presence of over 30,000 spectators, and prior to the game many thousands of dollars went into the pockets of professional ticket speculators.

The wealthy are the makers of fashion for the world. The monetary standard in athletics has been established by such universities as Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton and Pennsylvania, where the sons of millionaires are plentiful, and where proximity to great cities ensures abundant gate money. In the South every college has its athletic team, which yearns to keep up with the fashion, but has to meet obstacles well nigh insuperable on account of the lack of diffusion of wealth. The demand for excitement and the ascendancy of college spirit are no less dominant here than at the North; and the result is recklessness in running into debt unless the business side of college athletics is kept rigidly under faculty control. Without such control the experience has almost invariably been that commercialism, professionalism, extravagance, and intercollegiate jealousy, in one form or another, are developed until disaster is suffered.

CHARACTERISTICS OF FOOTBALL.

The recent Harvard athletic report shows that nine-tenths of the profit due to athletics came from football. Evidence comes from all parts of the country that this is by far the most popular game in America, as it seems also to be in England. It is theoretically the best game known for the exercise of physical courage, muscular strength, self control, quickness of judgment, promptness of action and evenness of temper. All of these qualities are desirable, and some of them are always applied in it. For strenuous earthly philosophers incapable of becoming excited, or for heavenly angels in quest of war, the game is an ideal one. But no representatives of these two classes are thus far known to have tried it. With ordinary human beings as contestants its objectionable features have become so well known that to recount them is only telling an oft told tale. They are indeed so numerous that to do the subject justice would require an extended special discussion.

The idea that springs most promptly into consciousness about football is its reckless brutality. Yet this is the special feature that seems above all others to ensure its popularity. The element of savagery in human nature that makes cruelty the pastime of the small boy remains latent throughout life among perhaps the majority of men. The knowledge that blood may be shed, that danger to life or limb must be incurred, has an indescribable charm for a large proportion of the spectators at the football field. Everybody knows that life may be lost by railway accidents, or by summer bathing, or even by paralysis due to long sermons in church; but the number of such casualties in proportion to the number of persons directly concerned is too small to produce any excitement. Risks must be taken in everything we do, but it is only the obvious and dangerous risks that bring pleasurable agitation. There is then a widespread and enthusiastic demand for football because it is dangerous; because it is war, even though on a small scale. One of the best known medical journals, *The London Lancet*, chronicled 23 deaths due to football in England during the year 1892, and 28 in 1893. The number of casualties that escaped notice is not known, but 109 were serious enough to require hospital treatment, including 34 broken legs, 20 broken collar bones and 3 cases of concussion of the brain. During the season just ended, despite improvements in the rules of the game, there have

been at least 7 deaths due to football in the United States, and over 70 recorded injuries so severe as to require surgical treatment, with a large number unrecorded. Within sight of the writer's home there have been 2 cases of concussion of the brain requiring hospital treatment.

In comparing football with other sources of danger we are not concerned so much with the absolute number of casualties as with the ratio of casualties to participants. At West Point in 1893 a careful statistical comparison was made by local medical officers between gymnastic exercises, horseback riding and football, as sources of injury to the cadets. Of the 80 cases 9 were due to the gymnasium, 17 to riding, 54 to football, or 6 times as many to football as to the gymnasium. Of the days lost from scholastic duty 11 were due to the gymnasium, 54 to riding and 277 to football, or 25 times as many to football as to the gymnasium. The average enrollment of cadets that year was 260. The percentage danger due to football, more than 20 per cent of the enrollment, is thus seen to be extraordinary. But in reality to obtain the comparative percentages of football and riding those of football should be multiplied by three, since football was played only once a week and riding was done three times a week. To obtain a comparison for football and gymnasium accidents, the football percentage should be multiplied by six, since gymnasium exercise is taken six times a week.

LOCAL OR INTERCOLLEGIATE?

It may perhaps be said that all cases of brutality in playing football are in direct violation of the rules of the game. But even if this be granted, the actual result in deaths and broken limbs and shattered health is a stubborn answer. No game is civilized that requires the presence of surgeons and hospital equipment. Intercollegiate football is, in a large proportion of cases, merely collective prize fighting for championship and gate money. Its essential brutality can never be changed without changing human nature. The victim of slugging feels bound to avoid informing on his assailant because he would be regarded as pusillanimous for doing so. Slugging generally passes undiscovered by those whose duty it is to prevent this evil, since the very conditions of the contest make it impossible for one man to see or control the actions of nearly two dozen in the confusion of such play. Despite its roughness, football may be reasonably tolerated among stu-

dents in the same college; but so soon as the intracollegiate feature is replaced by intercollegiate competition a Pandora's box of evils is opened. It may seem as if a competitive game between two colleges ought to involve no principle different from that of a contest between classes in the same college. But experience has shown that the difference is great. To quote the words of Dr. Wilder, who at Cornell University has had exceptional opportunities for information, "between the intracollegiate and the intercollegiate forms the distinction is substantially as between recreation and distraction, liberality and extravagance, emulation and hostility, zeal and ferocity, music and noise, enthusiasm and hysterics, hilarity and rowdiness, moderation and excess."

RESPONSIBILITY OF COLLEGE AUTHORITIES

Ferocity in competition and recklessness in rivalry are evils inherent in contests that are intercollegiate, but absent to a large extent from those that are kept within the college. The question of the control of these evils is beset with difficulties. Perhaps the greatest is the attitude of college faculties, whose members regard athletic success as an important means of drawing students. Recognizing the universal demand for athletics on the part of the students themselves, both actual and prospective, they believe that as a business proposition it pays to encourage what seems to arouse the enthusiasm of young men more than any scholastic attractions that the colleges can offer. No one college feels strong enough to prohibit the participation of its own students in intercollegiate matches, unless most of its competitors agree to do the same. So strong an institution as Harvard prohibited intercollegiate football in 1885, but the prohibition lasted only a year. Regulations for the control of intercollegiate athletics have been drawn up by committees organized for that purpose, but what suited one college failed to suit another; and general agreement has thus far been impossible. Suggestions, in order to be practicable, must be made to fit an embarrassing condition, rather than a theory.

The fundamental idea that should be grasped by all college authorities is expressed in the following words by President Schurman of Cornell University, who says, (*Forum*, Jan. 1894), "A limitation which will, I think, be deemed fair and nanly, is that these contests between students should be regarded as exhibitions for students, and not primarily for the public. They are prosti-

tuted when they are treated as money making shows. The proper place for them is the college field; and in cities this should not be given up to the crowd. The aim of athletics should be to give every student a rounded, harmonious physical organization, not to train a dozen or two semi-officials to win matches." Let it be assumed that we can not reach this ideal; how can we approach it?

GYMNASTICS A REQUISITE FOR A COLLEGE DEGREE

An obvious suggestion is that permission to teams to engage in intercollegiate matches should be hedged around with such limitations as to put a premium on gymnastic training and local athletics. In most modern colleges some courses of work are prescribed and some are elective. Gymnastic training should be prescribed for all first year students. For the second, third and fourth years, it may be elective; but, under suitable restrictions regarding regularity, the student should receive such credit for satisfactory gymnastic work as to make this count among the available requisites for the baccalaureate degree. For future welfare in life systematic bodily training is quite as important as the knowledge of Latin, of Greek, or of French, which is so generally demanded for the attainment of the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

ATHLETICS SHOULD STIMULATE GYMNASTICS

Another suggestion is that permission to a team to engage in an intercollegiate match should not be granted unless it can be shown that a definite and large percentage of all students enrolled in the college, during the whole of the scholastic terms including and preceding that in which the match occurs, have engaged in local athletic pursuits throughout a definite and large number of hours.

A careful record should be kept of the quantity and quality of work done by every student under the guidance of the physical director of the college. If the number of healthy students who do good gymnastic work should be less than 70 or 80 per cent of the total enrollment, this fact should be sufficient to prevent their chosen athletic leaders from receiving permission to represent them in any intercollegiate match. At present the bodily training of the few who are members of the team, and of those who are possible substitutes, is generally taken as an equivalent for the training of all. The true interests of the majority should take precedence over the alleged interests of a few whose real aim is

not in the least educative, but merely for excitement and championship.

ATHLETIC PRIVILEGES AS REWARDS FOR GOOD COLLEGE WORK

A third suggestion is that no student should be permitted to engage in an intercollegiate match unless his class standing has been continuously maintained at a high grade. It should not be sufficient that he has been merely passed in his examinations. It should be required that he must maintain intellectual, as well as athletic, leadership. Absence from college to engage in such contests is a privilege that should be based only on the student's demonstrated ability to perform every scholastic duty in spite of temporary absence. Athletic leaders are not necessarily, or even generally, young men whose energies are confined to the athletic field. In many colleges the average scholastic standing of the athletic team has been above that of the student body as a whole. The men of brains and character have naturally taken the leadership in what is known to give them the most influence among their companions. Scholarly training is by no means all that college life should imply. The education due to contact with competitors in the college world outside of the classroom and laboratory is quite as important as that derived from contact with professors. But this last should not be neglected in deference to college spirit. The higher the stand taken by the student in athletics, the higher should be the stand demanded of him in intellectual work. For the privilege of intercollegiate contest a high price should be paid.

CONCLUSION

Although football is brutal, it must be credited with serving as a tremendous stimulus to thousands of young men to build up their bodies by vigorous outdoor exercise. Let it be practiced as sport on the college grounds, just as much as the demand for it may require, even if legs and collar bones are occasionally broken. But no less an athlete than President Roosevelt has said, "When money comes in at the gate, sport flies out at the window." Let all checks possible be put upon intercollegiate contests. They serve no useful purpose, and have been tolerated only in deference to the demand of students. Of late years, the dominant idea in the college world seems to have been that "A whole head is worth less than a half-back." By judicious regulation of athletics, the head may yet be restored to supremacy.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

*First Session—Presbyterian College for Women, Friday, December 27,
2:30 P. M.*

The meeting was called to order by Miss Lucy L. Davis, president of the department.

Prof. P. P. Claxton, professor of Pedagogy in the State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, North Carolina, discussed "Arithmetic and Geometry in the Elementary Schools."

Miss M. Lizzie Harvey, Lynchburg, Virginia, read a paper on "Geography in the Public Schools."

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

President—Supt. Ed. P. Moses, Raleigh, N. C.

Vice-President—Miss Lucy L. Davis, Williamsburg, Va.

Secretary—Mrs. Eva R. Bain, Columbus, Ga.

The department adjourned to meet again at 2:30 p. m. on Saturday.

*Second Session—Presbyterian College for Women, Saturday, December 28,
2:30 P. M.*

The meeting was called to order by the president of the department.

Superintendent Edward P. Moses discussed the question, "How to Teach Children to Read."

The subject was further discussed by Miss Margaret Winifred Haliburton, of Richmond, Va.

Mrs. Eva R. Bain, of the Industrial School of Columbus, Ga., gave a brief talk about the work of that school.

The meeting adjourned.

(Reported by Miss Lucy Davis, president of the department).

GEOGRAPHY IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

MISS M. LIZZIE HARVEY, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, LYNCHBURG, VA.

Among the sciences geography holds an undisputed place, and of all the subjects forming a part of our curriculum of study none are more interesting, more broadening or more educative.

The study of geography means the study of almost every other science, since its subject matter is intimately connected with that of the other sciences. It is the central subject around which all others gravitate. There can be no intelligent study of geographical forms without an inquiry into the causes that have produced them, which inquiry is but an entrance into the realm of geology. A proper study of geography necessitates an investigation as to the kind of soil, thereby leading to a study of mineralogy. The consideration of the action of the great atmospheric currents with their heat and moisture on the earth's surface leads into meteorology. A knowledge of structure and climate is the basis of the study of the flora and fauna of a country, hence botany and zoölogy are closely linked with geography. These with mineralogy best display what each country has to subserve man's advancement along lines of industry, art and trade.

The dependence of man on his environment explains the dependence of anthropology on geography. In order to understand fully a nation's character and development it is necessary to know the climate, soil, resources, commercial facilities and, above all, the character of surface of the country. "Each man mirrors in his own life the locality in which he lives. In the people the country finds its reflection." The effect of a district upon the nature of its inhabitants in population and color, in temperament and speech, even in mental characteristics, is very perceptible. The natives of mountainous countries are distinguished for industry, morality, courage, and love of freedom. The independence of Switzerland is due to the virtue and bravery of her gallant and hardy mountaineers. Has not history been rightly styled the twin sister of geography? Historical events must be associated with certain geographical features if they are to pulsate with life and to be permanent treasures in memory's storehouse. A clear concept of the relief of a continent gives an insight into the movements of nations. Structure has often decided the fortunes of war. The historian turns from the acts of men back to the scenes which have conditioned their life, while the geographer advances from the study of the home of men to the manifestation of its influence in their deeds. Geography explains and illuminates history—incomplete each without the other.

The primary purpose in teaching structural geography is to develop in the pupil's mind a mental picture corresponding to the earth's surface in general outline and prominent features. Not

form alone but dimensions also enter into a concept. Areas, lengths, heights, etc., must be regarded. In picturing Mt. Vesuvius not the least important element is its elevation. Its shape may be familiar, but shall it "flash upon the inward eye" as ambitiously lifting its proud head to an exalted altitude, rivaling in majesty the Alpine or Himalayan crests? Rather should it rise modestly to a distance of 4,000 feet above the fair Italian shore. Number, therefore, is essential to a correct concept. This height becomes more significant when brought into connection with the pupil's own observation. The Peaks of Otter, reaching an elevation about the same as that of Vesuvius, serve as a means of comparison.

The earth, the home of man, is but one of a great system of heavenly bodies of similar origin, form and motions and its relation to them introduces astronomy. Thus from these and other sciences geography draws material that enhances its own wealth, and contributes in return that which enriches them many fold.

The earliest work in geography is purely observational. The pupil must first see. In the opening years of school life is begun the habit of geographical observation that is to be developed more and more through the succeeding years until it becomes firmly established and is a power to be directed to all objects with which he comes in contact so long as life shall last. Then, in the very dawn of childhood, are acquired the true and vivid ideas on which to build, ideas which are to be used in assimilating new ideas in the school lessons. Then is aroused the spirit of investigation and thirst for geographical knowledge.

Let "his daily teachers be the woods and rills,
The silence that is in the starry sky,
The sleep that is among the lonely hills,"

till is engendered that tender fellowship with nature when he can "hold communion with her visible forms." Never should it be said, "Eyes have they but they see not."

The study of small forms should precede that of larger ones. The eyes, minds, and experiences of beginners are not equal to the appreciation of the large forms without previous contact with small bodies, hence the brook precedes the river. That group of objects most conspicuous in the vicinity and by means of which the most observing power can be developed and most interest awakened in the pupil should claim first attention. Begin with

the knowledge each has, review it from the objects and teach him to find new facts, never telling him what he can find for himself. In the country the natural features, as hills, valleys, meadows, streams, etc.; in the cities the artificial features, the works of man, as streets, railways, harbors, waterworks and parks, constitute a large part of the study, yet something of both of these groups may be used in each locality. Thus, street phenomena just after a rain while the water is still flowing afford excellent opportunities for teaching water partings, basins and systems. The smallness and number of the objects render the seeing of relations easy. The same portion should be observed again after the flow has ceased. Follow this with the study of a brook, starting if possible at its source, finding with the pupils the parts, right and left banks, their height and steepness, also the slopes. Follow its course and observe its general direction with the differences in upper and lower course, windings around hills and in meadows. Notice the speed of flow on steep and gentle slopes, in deep valleys and through marshes, the position of the current and of slack water; experiment by throwing bits of wood near both the edge and centre of stream; note the width of the stream, the depth of its current, the rapids, the kind of bed, the temperature, color and sounds of the water, and the reflections and shadows. Lead the pupils to see that the size of the stream depends on the size of the basin and the amount of rainfall, while the size of the basin is determined by the distance of the hills or mountains over which the water parting extends, from the stream. Direct attention to the vegetation on the hillsides, in the meadows, among the rocks and sands, as trees, shrubs, vines, herbs and mosses. Study the animal life in and about the brook, as insects, fish, reptiles, birds and mammals. Show the work of erosion, transport and deposit of material by the stream. Emphasize its usefulness. The next step, from the study of the brook basin to that of the river basin, involves little difficulty.

With us hills stand out in prominence and demand our first study. The pupil visits a hill, noting its shape, parts, material, character of its slopes, observing how the agents of denudation alter the shape and size, how winds, brooks, etc., remove the results of this action, and how the presence of vegetation helps to preserve its form. This prepares for the subsequent study of the mountain. A careful examination of a waterworn roadway will show all forms of valleys. A miniature plateau will serve as a

type of distant larger plateaus. In every case the pupil should observe not only the passive fixed features but the ever-active forces at work producing changes, as winds, rains, frost and heat. Daily weather records should be kept.

In the lowest grades take up the study of color by means of natural objects, as grass, leaves, flowers, fruits, animals and clouds; of distances by developing the idea of inch, foot, yard and applying these units of thought by measuring the length, width and height of objects in the room, till finally a clear concept of a mile is obtained to be used in developing the larger units of distance; of time by developing accurate ideas of minute, ten minutes, half an hour, hour, then day, week, month, year, combining time and distance by translating the latter into units of time in connection with railroad travel; and of direction, beginning with right and left, and later by locating objects and places in the city, first by pointing, then by drawing a map of schoolroom floor and locating the desks, next by making a map of the schoolyard, then by studying a map of the city and by locating on it the homes of the pupils and other places of general interest. Stories of child life in other countries appeal to the pupil. This work is to be continued through succeeding grades, but expanded till his conceptions are materially broadened. Simple experiments may be tried to show the movements of air and the change of water into vapor and of vapor back to its liquid state. As a preparation for mathematical geography the pupil should be led to observe the movement of the sun north and south with the changing seasons, noting its position at noon during different parts of the year, drawing a line on the floor where the rays fall at that hour and watching them advance or recede as the days go by; also measuring the length of shadows at noon at different times of the year. As a step toward the study of the distribution of plants, have the pupil observe difference of plants on hills and lowlands, in loamy, sandy, clayey and gravelly ground. To show the conditions of plant life, have four boxes, each with one of these kinds of soil. Plant in each box a row of the same kind of seed, then in each another row of another kind and so on. Observe in which soil the first seed grows best, with like observations for the different varieties planted. Vary it by planting the same kind of seed in two boxes with the same kind of soil, exposing one to the sunlight and keeping the other in the dark. Watch the result. Or water one carefully and let the other remain dry. Observe the animals whose

haunts are in the forest and those that find a home in the fields or by the river's bank. A study of the home occupations prepares for the study of the human element in geography.

Field lessons and excursions become indispensable and should be employed as frequently as possible. On return to school the pupil should be required to reproduce what he has seen in descriptions, maps or models. Of great value are these in themselves, but their reflex influence on the observational work must not be overlooked. If the pupil is to write about the hill or represent it in a map or sand model, very careful and sustained attention must be given this object, close and repeated acts of perception are made necessary, and the very effort to reproduce it gives distinctness and definiteness to the object, which otherwise might remain as a vague, shadowy form. Moreover, such work enables the pupil to appreciate the real meaning of maps and models. He goes from the object to the symbol and then is ready to go from the symbol back to the object. When in later studies maps, models and descriptions form the main sources of knowledge, he can read them with ease and intelligence and thereby imagine the surfaces of countries or continents.

One of the great difficulties in this work is to know whether the correct image really exists in the pupil's mind. To the teacher the pupil's maps or models become an excellent means of examining the form in his mind. Modeling is to be used not as a means of presenting, but of representing natural forms—of recalling concepts. The pupil should never be required to model a form unless it is very clear in mind or near by for comparison. Put aside sand just as soon as the pupil can imagine without its aid. Guard against the danger of stopping at symbols. Great care must be exercised lest the model or the map remain most prominent in the mind whereas the object it represents should be the abiding image.

Having become thoroughly acquainted with every geographical form in the neighborhood and having acquired the ability to reproduce them, the pupil is prepared for the study of distant objects, of descriptive geography in which the observations and representations of others constitute the main study. He now goes from objects within vision to objects beyond vision. Known facts are recalled, rearranged and modified as indicated by picture, model, drawing or description, local objects serving as types of distant forms. "Every little nook and shaded corner is but a re-

flection of the whole of Nature." A small range of hills may be taken as a type of the loftiest Cordillera. The forces at work on a small scale exemplify the processes in the larger works of Nature. It becomes evident that Nature operates alike in great things and small. Of course the observational work is continued and hand in hand with it goes what may be called the rational phase in contradistinction to the mere memorizing of facts or of isolated details of topography. This carries the pupil into the reason of things. If the child's mind acts normally, there ever comes the inevitable *why*, and the persistent *how*. Imbedded in the soil of tidewater are shells. How came they there? Great Britain is the "mistress of the seas." The natural query is, Why? In the study of important cities, the chief concern is why each was located where it is, why it leads in this manufacture, or why it is noted for this or for that. The mere fact that South America has the heaviest rainfall of all the continents is of little value apart from the reasons for the same, viz.: the arrangement of its highlands, its position mainly within the tropics, and the direction of the winds.

In the fourth year the pupil is ready to study the continents, beginning with his own. First of all, consider in each continent its location in hemispheres and zones, and with reference to other continents. Observe its shape and find which continent it resembles most. Find length and approximate its width. Compare in area with others. Observe character of coastline and discuss its influence on the people. Next is the all-important imaging of the great slopes of the continent. The surface of the whole earth is arranged in slopes for life. Relief locates rainfall, determines drainage, distributes soil, modifies climate, distributes plant and animal life, influences commerce, regulates occupations, affects the character of man, aids location, and makes history; therefore, the arrangement of the continent in slopes is a key to the understanding of its life in all its branches. Picture this landmass as composed of two great slopes, long and short; compare them in length, area, drainage and general structure; compare with corresponding slopes in other continents. Mold the slopes. Gradually add the prominent features as primary highland, then secondary highland, great plains, studying each thoroughly until the continent appears with all its modifications of surface. Compare its surface with that of another continent made after the same plan.

Following a natural order, consider next the drainage, making a careful study of the large river basins, in which the observations in primary grades on brooks and rivers are applied, locating and tracing the water parting on the map, showing the side and source slopes, bounding the right and left slopes and naming the principal tributaries on each, giving length and area with rank among the rivers of the globe and such additional facts as characterize the basin. Compare the drainage with that of other continents, accounting for resemblance or difference. As each natural division has been taught, its climate, rainfall, soil, productions, minerals, animals, people and their occupations, with reasons for the same, have been considered. Now it is easy to recall those facts of climate, or rainfall, etc., in their relation to the continent as a whole.

Last of all is the study of the political divisions. If the previous work has been effectively done, little remains but to select facts relating to each particular country under consideration, going perhaps more fully into detail, and teaching in addition the government, religion and history. Find the relative areas of the countries by comparing the area of the largest with that of the continent, and of the next largest with that, and so on, grouping those of nearly the same size. As the maps in our geographies are made on such different scales, the pupil sometimes gets very distorted ideas of comparative sizes. Some practical questions are helpful. How many South Carolinas in Great Britain? How many Mississippi basins in the Amazon basin? Better than asking how much larger is France than Virginia is a map of Virginia within a map of France, both drawn on the same scale, appealing forcibly to the sense of sight. To discover the pupil's misconception of sizes, one has but to ask him his idea of the size of an oasis, that fertile spot in the desert of which he has often heard or of the delta of a river, or yet of a glacier, which he imagines may be as large as a house, or several squares long, while perchance some more imaginative mind may venture even a mile in length, to which the others may listen with open-eyed wonder or ill-disguised skepticism. This numbering faculty should be exercised with every opportunity. In the field lessons of primary grades the pupil should estimate the extent of the field, length of slope, breadth of river, area of pond, etc. Unless thus exercised, his measuring power will remain undeveloped; but when he feels the necessity of knowing, then instinctively he approximates the

distance over which he passes, which he takes in with his eyes, and which he measures with his feet. Then, having acquired this judgment in numbering, he can, in imagination, approach nearer to the areas of great natural or political divisions.

Most of the review and drill work on the continents is accomplished by constant comparison of features of the continent under discussion with corresponding features in those continents previously studied. Occasionally in reviewing a subject or in hearing an assigned lesson, instead of plying the pupil with questions innumerable solely to test his memory or faithfulness, use the facts gained for leading on to new thoughts or new views. For example, dispense with minute questioning on the Mississippi river and have the pupil take an imaginary trip down the river, letting him select the starting point, name the imaginary steamer, and from its deck describe the changing scenes. First appear the prairies with cattle grazing, then wheat and corn fields. Rafts float by. On the right (bringing out the idea of slope) the Missouri empties its coffee colored waters into the Mississippi, while further down on the left the Ohio joins the mighty volume. Other tributaries are seen later. The tobacco and hemp crops give place to cotton, sugar and rice. What changes has a century wrought? The winding course is observed, likewise the bluffs that border the river. Explain their formation. At each city tarry awhile and recount its noteworthy objects and interests. The stream diminishes in size as it subdivides when it reaches the delta. Suggestive questions may be propounded to supplement his description. Having learned the length of the river, he will not hesitate when asked the distance traveled. What differences in temperature did you experience throughout the trip? will find a quick response. Is the Mississippi longer than when DeSoto discovered it? Immediately the building out of the delta 86 yards a year presents itself to the mind, but due allowance must also be made for the frequent cutting across the necks of the loops or bends. What states have you passed? Have the pupil see these things as he describes them.

An imaginative mind will delight in a balloon ascension to describe vividly the panorama spread out below. To vary the recitation, let the pupil write letters purporting to be from the foreign countries studied, relating his experiences and observations. Pupils never fail to enjoy writing a description of some place studied and reading it to the others to see if they can recognize

and guess the name of the place thus described. Short original descriptions may be encouraged.

The location of cities and points of interest in any country is best acquired by making imaginary journeys along customary routes of travel. This is facilitated by the use of guide books and itineraries published by railroads and steamship companies.

Geographical readers and books of travel add a wealth of information. The personal element in the latter invariably quickens interest in the pupil. Locate all places mentioned. The daily newspaper supplies much geographical material of a practical nature, presenting the actual business of the world and the movements of men in its report of current events, domestic and foreign traffic.

Gleanings from magazines and papers gathered into a scrap book may be utilized to great advantage. Pictures and descriptions of rulers, royal abodes, government buildings, and ceremonies of foreign governments, grouped according to forms of government, familiarize the pupil with the controlling figures of the world and give glimpses into royal life such as no geography affords.

Read selections of literary merit bearing on the subject. Though all the facts may be old, the choice language recalling the ideas gives a beautiful setting. Gems of poetry satisfy the pupil's love of the beautiful and linger long, oftentimes becoming woven into his own expression of thought. The mere mention of such names as Mont Blanc or Lake Constance summons into consciousness that majestic peak or that fair lake glorified with poetic beauty.

Pictures are of inestimable value in teaching a country. They clothe it with interest and supply in the most economic way much useful information. Pictures teach truth, surpass feeble efforts at description, assist imagination, give beauty and tend to the culture of the child. Often they inspire him with the desire to travel, to see and enjoy the beauties and wonders of nature. Artistic taste and judgment may be cultivated. Constantly inquire what the child likes best and what pleases him most. Incidentally history and literature may be taught. In the collection of pictures for teaching the structure of Scotland, Holyrood finds a place. The rugged heights in the back ground show the surface, but the castle in the fore ground tells of the tragic life of Mary. The pictures of Loch Katrine and the Trossachs leave little for imagination's

work and the sight makes "remembrance wake with all her busy train." Literature has invested them with never-fading interest.

One of the most potent factors in the successful presentation of geography is drawing. On the teachers maps of the continents in chalk modeling stand out in bold relief the heaven-aspiring mountains with their towering peaks which imagination's ready touch crowns with diadems of snow; at the foot lie the lowly valleys traversed by rivers "in winding banks and mazes serpentine;" beyond them stretch lofty plateaus with arid wastes or clothed in verdure's scant supply. All these and more the relief map brings out in striking contrasts. The surface of a country assumes a new aspect with its physical features represented in a map. In an unpretentious drawing of a river basin, only a glance is needed to reveal the slopes, their relative length, area and degree of inclination. The only use of this kind of drawing is to picture the continent. Drawing maps is a worthless process unless it enhances the distinctness of the concept. Whether the pupil draws from the teacher's map, from the molded form, or from his own mental picture, he should be led to imagine each part as he draws, as e. g. the coast, whether it be building or wearing.

Rapid sketches of the continents, first from maps in the geography, then from memory are made to emphasize the general shape without attention to details, which is further impressed by having them draw the outline in two minutes, then in one minute, then in half a minute. Ten such drawings made in ten minutes are more educative than one drawing which consumes ten minutes. Outline maps filled in with facts relating to the subject taught, as kinds of soil, distribution of products, flow of ocean currents, location of important places, are not to be ignored in our ardor for physical geography. This is one mode of the pupil's recitation. In studying minerals of the world, for instance, each may be located on the map as studied, thus making a progressive map. A single line with the crayon in making a cross section of a country supplements and vivifies the teacher's description of its structure. Dim, indistinct individual concepts are replaced by living realities. Thus may be shown Palestine with its low coastal plain rising from occasional hills to a mountainous central plateau 1600 feet above sea level, sinking into a deep valley almost as far below sea level and rising again in an abrupt slope to a broad table land beyond the Jordan. The cross section of a plateau with its enclosing mountain walls is used to show the ascent of a warm

vapor-laden wind bestowing copious showers on the lower slope and sifting its snows on the mountain summit but having naught to refresh the thirsty land beyond, reaching it as a cold, dry wind. A diagram of winds reveals the movement of the great air currents that flow around the globe. A simple drawing tells to the pupil, "if aught in animate e'er speaks," the story of river work, of the deposit of soil in its bed, the gradual elevation of the surface of the water, the overflow and building of high bluffs on its banks and the consequent slope of the land from the river—a story for which words are not quite adequate.

Specimens of leaves, plants, animals and minerals are of great value in intensifying interest in the study of them, and pupils will take pleasure in adding to the stock of specimens. When these or pictures of them can not be obtained, drawing comes forward as a welcome substitute. A few lines may be sufficient to outline the unknown form whose acquaintance the pupil is to make. While the drawings may not have beauty to charm, they nevertheless convey the truth, render obvious the obscure, illustrate descriptions, help the imagination, and often supersede language as a means of expression and of impression. Truly drawing is the amplification of geography.

After the continents have been studied they are to be combined into one great landmass, composed of two great slopes meeting at their upper edges along the globe waterparting and joining at their lower edges to form the vast depressions in which the waters of the globe collect. Under skillful teaching the tiny hill has assumed the proportions of a mountain, the diminutive field has extended into the boundless prairie, the babbling brook has been transformed into the resistless river, the creations of the enlarged vision have united to form the continents. Meanwhile the image of the lake has grown into the infinite expanse of ocean which bathes in ceaseless tides the continental shores. Now continents combine and oceans commingle—the wondrous world is fashioned. The earth as a whole appears in all its marvelous unity, but with ever-pleasing diversity. The whole has powers and qualities differing from those of its parts, yet all are working in beautiful harmony to make the earth a home for man and the means of his progress to a higher and nobler life.

Geography is no longer a memorizing of a mass of information concerning the earth but a study of relations, of the mutual play and interdependence of its parts and nowhere is this more

clearly manifest than in the study of the earth as a unit and the connection of this unified whole with man and man's Creator. The manifold relations of land, water and air are striking. Search for the general laws of relief and note the disposition of the waters into world river systems. Mark the climatic conditions prevailing and the winds blowing in steady currents from the poles and back with here and there a diverging course. Regions of great or little rainfall over the whole earth naturally suggest themselves and leave little doubt as to the necessary character of the soil of each. Springing from all these is life in every phase, vegetable, animal and human.

The work on climate is based on the measure of the slant of the sun's rays. Give some unfamiliar name of a place in the polar regions that the pupil may describe its climate. At once he inquires where it is and on learning its location infers that it is cold because far from the equator. Name another, then when questioned as to position explain that it is near the equator and the immediate conclusion is that it is hot. Thus may be brought out the idea of the dependence of climate primarily on latitude. Explain and illustrate the effect of winds, elevations, proximity to the sea, and ocean currents on climate. Give the pupil places in the same latitude having similar climate and have him account for the similarity. Next select places in the same latitude having different climate in order that the pupil may compare and explain the other conditions of climate that occasion the difference. Then give places in different latitudes having the same climate, due to the counter-balancing influence of other conditions. Lastly, give places in different latitudes, where all the climatic conditions vary, and see the resulting differences.

Winds play such an important part in the life of the world that they must be thoroughly studied. Begin with the effect of heat on various substances, then on air, using simple illustrations of its movements and proceeding to the general circulation of air around the globe. The constant winds, trade winds, and their departure from a direct north and south course need special explanation. Periodical and local winds may be considered next. Emphasize the many uses of winds. International relations are often determined by them. The commerce between Europe and America received an immense impulse from the prevalence of the northeast wind in Europe in 1846, causing drought, while the

moist southwest wind gave America an abundant harvest from which to supply Europe.

Plants must be discussed in relation to heat belts as if obedient to fixed laws of grouping. Classify plants according to uses. In this study of the earth as a whole, covering about ten months, endeavor to observe the natural sequence, showing the connection between the subjects. In beginning the study of plants lead up from the study of soil by questions correlating the two, as, What kind of plants grow in sandy soil? In loam? In what kind of soil does wheat grow best?

The distribution of the animals of the world must be considered with reference to great natural regions and to the barriers that retard their spread. The similarity of the animal life of the northern continents and the diversity in the southern are not a matter of chance.

In reviewing the natural productions, bring out the leading occupations in different countries. Commerce as the means of bringing nations into touch with each other deserves special attention. Trace the great ocean routes and locate the chief sea-port cities, naming their exports and imports with reasons therefor.

In studying the races note not simply their physical and mental characteristics and comparative civilization as indicated by occupations, homes, dress, customs, etc., but the original location as determined largely by natural boundaries and the subsequent changes and dispersal. Show that certain forms of government and religion, whose principles must be carefully learned, are more or less peculiar to a certain race and have these closely associated in the pupil's mind.

Review the political divisions of the world, classifying the most important ones with regard to size and population. Trace briefly the past progress of the leading nations. Find the advantages or disadvantages of structural and climatical environments. A knowledge of the struggles to overcome the obstacles inspires the pupil with respect and reverence for man in conquering the forces of nature. Ascertain fully their present status and progress. Discern international relations and their effects. Measure their respective usefulness to mankind and influence on the world's progress. Besides the great world powers of the present day study those countries that in early ages were the nest

places of civilization, especially Italy, Greece and Palestine. With every feature of the last the pupil should be perfectly familiar. A vivid concept of its structure will bind scriptural knowledge into one still greater concept. He must know well the stage on which were enacted the mighty events of the Bible, then they will marshal themselves in orderly array and confusion will flee away.

In concluding the study give the pupils a last comprehensive view by letting them take an illustrative tour around the world with the poets. A quotation may be assigned each pupil to be memorized. Have the pupils ranged round the room in order and as each recites his quotation, have him show the picture of the scene described. Thus, they may embark in "The Steamship" of Holmes', be borne across the wild Atlantic with Southey, accompany other bards in transcontinental journeyings and return with Whittier to "the best and dearest spot on earth," ending with patriotism's noble song, "America." Even music may be made tributary to a geography lesson.

At least three months in the earlier part of this study may be devoted with profit to Mathematical Geography. The bringing of order out of chaos, the shaping of this terrestrial sphere has irresistible charms for the lover of the wonderful. Recount the various processes and changes, describe the primitive animals, and the pupil is clamoring for more of that strange story, as each chapter is unfolded. What a startling revelation, when the solar system is studied, that there are other moons than he has seen! How keen the interest in the other planets in many respects so like his own! Tell of the old ideas regarding the earth's shape and prove that it is spherical. As far as practicable have the pupil observe the facts needed and draw inferences as to the shape of the body which produces such appearances. Latitude and longitude possess a peculiar fascination. Besides being enabled to locate places correctly, the pupil obtains accurate ideas of the relative position of places. Have him find important cities in the same latitude, in the same longitude. How many realize that the Cape of Good Hope is just opposite the mouth of the La Plata or that the Strait of Gibraltar is almost due east from Norfolk, that is, in the same latitude? Name all important places crossed by the equator. In the same way locate the tropics, zero meridian, 90th east, 90th west and 180th. Then the continents will assume correct relative positions in his mind. Have the pupil in

the study of his state find the central city, or the largest city, and trace east and west, north and south on the map of the world to find places in the same latitude and longitude as that city. The earth's motions and their effects should be treated at length. The relations of the earth to the sun during its revolution make clear the regular change of seasons. Make constant observations of the north and south movement of the sun. Keep a record of the time of sunrise and sunset, especially at the equinoxes and solstices, and the variation in the length of day and night. In all of this work the taste for and exact science finds full gratification; imagination soars on buoyant wings and the thinking powers have widest scope. Problems arise on every hand. What changes would result if the amount of inclination of the earth's axis were increased or diminished, if the north pole did not always point to the north star?

Mysteries of the ever-shifting pictures in the starry vault above are mysteries no longer when night after night the pupil watches them as some are slowly drawn by an invisible power from the eastern horizon to the zenith to take the place of others then dropping below the western line, to be in turn succeeded by others still. Charts of the heavens drawn on the board and copied by the pupil enable him to trace out easily the different constellations until he can recognize and name each one. The mythological story associated with each group makes it shine with an added lustre. The teacher should go out star-gazing with the class and have the pupils show the result of their nightly vigils, also help them to find those groups they have had difficulty in finding before.

"Great and marvelous are thy works, O God!" must every pupil feel, if not utter, when he has contemplated in these lessons the wisdom, forethought, and power of the All-wise in the control of the universe which sprang from His creative hand. Neglect no occasion for turning the pupil's thoughts into that channel with such thought-provoking questions as, Would the earth be a more beautiful or more comfortable home for us if it were a perfect sphere instead of having an uneven surface? Would it be better if the layer of air surrounding the earth were indefinitely increased in quantity?

Summing it all up then, besides exerting a humanizing and uplifting influence upon the character of the student, geography trains the observing powers, strengthens the memory, cultivates

the imagination, exercises the judgment and reasoning faculties, and stimulates independence of thought and original investigation. Viewed in its scientific aspect geography must be recognized as an invaluable means of mental discipline.

SOME EXPERIENCES IN TEACHING YOUNG CHILDREN TO READ

MISS M. W. HALIBURTON

One can not be expected to take pleasure in recalling a series of one's own failures, or hope to make the recounting of them very interesting to others; but since few people are averse to profiting by the folly and failures of others, you may find it possible to listen with patience. Then, too, there has been, on such occasions as this, so much said in the opposite vein by those who have had more successes than failures that there is nothing left for me to say but to tell of some of my experiences in trying to teach young children to read.

The only benefit to be derived from relating such facts is that we may decide which of the methods that I have tried in teaching children to read produces the best results, is the nearest to being the one needed, and why it is so.

Most of us are only too well aware of the fact that the work of teaching the beginner to read is one attended with many difficulties. The learning of a new language, an entirely new means of getting and expressing thought, is in itself a laborious work for the child. It is equally laborious for the one who must teach him how to do this; who must contend also with such minor difficulties as devising means by which the child may make the transition from script to print, and from the blackboard to the book without becoming discouraged; who is hampered by a scarcity of suitable books for this early work, and who has a large number of pupils that must be taught at the same time.

It is no great wonder that all primary teachers and their superintendents are so much exercised as to what is the best way to do this work.

We hear a great deal about the different methods of teaching reading. Each has its own advocates as well as its opponents. There is the word method, the sentence method, the concentration method, the phonic method, and the a, b, c, method.

The last mentioned we are always glad to bring forward on these occasions as the one method we all agree in opposing, yet all over this land there are teachers still using it. The teacher of a private and very select, as well as popular, primary school, in one of our cities, told me recently that there was no other method worth considering, that a child *could* not be taught to read until he had been taught the alphabet and knew how to spell, and that *she* had been taught by the a, b, c, method.

Well, so was I taught by that method, and I learned to read, too, *after* I knew the entire alphabet forward, backward, and skipping about, and after I had learned to spell a few thousand words on the book and off the book, and after I was a well grown child.

When I first began to teach I taught just as I had been taught, and not until I thus attempted to lead others over it did I realize how long and wearisome was the road over which I had come. The children did, after a time, learn to spell out the words and thus help themselves—the one thing of any value that I found in the a, b, c, method of teaching reading. But as often as I looked upon all those weary little faces, as often as I grew restive under their halting, drawling tones, I longed for some means by which the work could be made less tiresome to them and more satisfactory to me.

With a view to learning how to do this, I spent some time at the North studying the word method. I returned to my work feeling assured that I had gained all I needed and prepared to teach my next class to read with the glibness and expression of the children in the schools which I had visited. I made a list of all the words contained in Monroe's Primer, and also a list of those in Holmes' First Reader (the two books my class was to use), checking off on the last list all that were in the first. I had read all I could find on the word method. I could have told you readily enough what it proposed to do. Each word was to be presented as a whole so that the child could recognize it as a whole. He must so study the form of the word as a whole, that its image would be stamped indelibly upon his mind, so that there would be no necessity for spelling it out or knowing anything about the letters composing it. When this had been done the child might be said to have mastered the word. I treasured all the devices for teaching words as wholes with which the school journals teemed.

When school opened I was ready to teach by the word method and to drill upon words, words, words!

I never dreamed of having any reading lesson except the one that came next in the one book that was being used, and I never dared have that until I had drilled the children again and again upon every new word in it. My aim, always, was to so train the children that the instant they saw a word they would know whether it was a known or unknown word, and I must say that no matter what the method is by which she teaches, the teacher does well who keeps this aim before her.

So much drill upon a limited vocabulary gave some of the children the power to read the daily lesson with an astonishing glibness and considerable expression. I was quite willing to show off some of them to admiring parents and friends who visited my schoolroom. Notice that I say *some*. Some read with glibness and smoothness, some there were whom I was glad to show off; but, alas! it was always only some. They *would* get sick. They *had* to stay at home sometimes for days, for weeks and even for months. When these returned, consternation seized me. I found that in order to "stamp the image of a word upon the minds of the children" it was necessary to write it on the board over and over again, and that if a few days intervened without its repetition before it was thoroughly mastered, it became as a stranger even to those children who had been constantly in school.

As for those who had been absent so long, what could I do for them? They knew none of the words that had been taught while they were absent, and they had absolutely no power to get them for themselves. Notes to parents asking for help at home often brought resentful reminders from these that since the children did not know how to spell, they did not know how to help them get their lessons. So, weary half hours of work with these little unfortunates after school was the only solution of the difficulty that I found, and this too often filled their hearts with disgust and mine with dissatisfaction.

The word method had failed to do all that I hoped; but it had taught me the wonderful power of drill work.

Then I began to read about the sentence method. I was reminded that "the sentence is the expression of a thought," that it is "the unit of the language," etc., etc. I can't say that I saw much difference between this and the word method except in the manner of procedure. But since some of the most prominent writers upon educational subjects affirmed that it was far superior

to the word method and, in fact, was the only right method, I resolved that the next year I would teach by the sentence method.

So I began with the sentence, that is, I drilled upon the sentence before I did upon the words composing it. I taught the children to recognize the sentence as a whole and to give it as a whole, not regarding the words of which it was made up until they could read it accurately and with a fair degree of rapidity. Then, and not until then, I drilled upon the words, thus going from the sentence to the words instead of from the words to the sentence. This method did not demand so much drill upon isolated words. They were to be learned largely by frequent repetition, the same words being used in as many new relations as possible. To secure this I found it necessary to supplement every lesson, after the children began to use the book, with sentences and lessons that I made myself and taught from the blackboard. This gave many sentences about the same subject, and the same words and idioms were used over and over again in as many different ways as I could devise. This seemed to be an improvement upon the word method. I found that these children gained more quickly the correct idea of what reading really is, that they thought more about what they were saying; in short, they seemed to be forming something like right habits in reading.

Two troubles prevented the reading from being entirely satisfactory. One was the children's inability to get new words for themselves, which difficulty the sentence method did away with no more than the word method did. The other was the impossibility of keeping the children interested while I spun out the lesson into a sufficient number of sentences to give all the words in new relations until they had been mastered by repetition. Their interest would flag long before I had exhausted my store of new sentences made up of the words that were only partially known.

I had long known that the most important condition of teaching other things well, was that of securing a sustained interest and undivided attention on the part of the children, and I began to think that the same must be equally true of the teaching of reading. I longed to see the real interest and spontaneity in the reading lessons that characterized the nature lessons.

The writers and advocates of what they are pleased to call the concentration method emphasize an interested attention on the child's part as the only condition under which reading can properly

be taught, claiming that it is really a matter of no importance whether the teacher begins with words or with sentences, provided that attention is secured through interest; but if the words are drilled upon first, it must not be long before they are used in a sentence, and no word must be given merely for the purpose of teaching its *form*, but always in relation with its content, and for the purpose of calling up its content. If the children are taught the sentence first, they must quickly separate it into its words and drill upon them until they are mastered. This method requires that the subjects of the reading lessons shall always be objects in which the children are vitally interested. It presupposes, as a preparation for the reading, a lesson upon the object about which the children are to read. When, therefore, they come to read, their entire attention can be given to what is being said of that in which they are interested. They are not to be given at the reading hour any new information, as that would distract their attention from the reading.

Nothing, it is claimed, provides such suitable material for reading lessons as nature study. The vital force of the simple and genuine interest aroused in the object is depended upon to induce that thought process which is reading, and the same thing is depended upon to overcome all the formal difficulties in reading. I believe it could do the former, but I doubted whether it could do the latter. I could know only by testing the method, and this I did with my next class.

These lessons were the most successful that I had ever had up to that time. I gave them from the blackboard in accordance with the concentration method.

I began with simple action sentences, that is, I gave a command, a child performed it. A child gave the same command and another child performed it. Then "the chalk said" just what we had spoken, and when I had thus written the command upon the board the children read it silently and one of them performed it again.

Then I drilled upon the written words, giving the names of objects and acts, whenever possible, in connection with the real objects and acts. I varied these script exercises as much as I could. Sometimes I would have one child perform one simple act, the others watching him. Then I wrote upon the board the simple sentence that expressed the performance. The child who mastered it first was allowed to read it aloud. At another time

I would write in one short sentence the act I wished performed. The children read it silently and the one who mastered it first was allowed to perform it. At another time we would study a picture, the children being allowed to talk about it for a while. Suppose it was a picture showing a baby looking up at a big dog (I remember we had such a lesson from a large copy of Holmes' picture showing this). When I spoke the word "baby," pointing to the baby in the picture, I quickly wrote the word "baby;" the word "dog" I presented in the same way and so on. Afterwards while talking, if I needed to use the word "baby" or "dog" I quickly wrote it on the board instead of speaking it, and in watching for this the children grew very alert and watchful during these exercises. The next day the same picture was used in a different way. The children were allowed to come one at a time and whisper what they saw in the picture—understanding beforehand that this time each whispered sentence was to tell just what they saw, as "I see a dog" or "I see a baby." I wrote what each child said, the others read it first silently and then aloud as soon as it was mastered. The same picture might be used in this way several times one day to teach one idiom, as "I see," the next day to teach another idiom, as "says," etc. When I saw that the children's interest in the picture was on the wane, another was selected.

I tried to make the nature lesson upon which I was to have the reading, as bright and enthusiastic as possible, then I would "let the chalk ask questions" about it. These the children read silently and then answered. Or I would allow the children to ask questions and "the chalk answered them." As long as I depended upon these script exercises I succeeded better than I had dared hope, though the need of some means for rendering the children more self-helpful in the way of getting new words for themselves was felt through it all. The vital force of the interest in the lessons, great as it was, did not overcome all the formal difficulties in reading.

When I began to use a book I met with new difficulties. I used first a little science primer for children, then some first readers largely made up of nature lessons. I always tried to have before the reading lesson a nature lesson on the object which was the subject of the reading lesson in the book. One day it might be on the starfish, next day on snow, the day following on apple blooms, etc.

Of course it was often impossible to have the right kind of

nature lesson precede the reading lesson especially if it happened that the children were to read on a warm autumn day about snow or something equally out of season. As far as I have been able to observe "science primers" and "nature readers" for children are failures as reading books. In the first place the best of them presupposes much more preliminary nature work than most teachers have done, and even when this has been done and the material can be secured for the necessary nature lesson, it does not always follow that the object of which they must read is the one upon which the children's interest is concentrated at that season. To be a success as a reading book in any class of young children, a nature reader would have to be made for that particular class, and made for their own immediate use by the teacher and pupils together.

The book which came nearest to being what I wanted at that time was a primer which I do not find popular with many teachers. It was the "Riverside Primer" and gives many action lessons and exercises in silent reading. With this book and the board exercises the children did a great deal of reading, if "thought getting" is reading. Since they were not required to read aloud until they had read silently, they were not burdened by being compelled to perform the two distinct operations of getting thought and expressing thought at the same time. These board exercises and silent readings gave me the best means of ascertaining whether the child knew the words. I found it much better than having to depend entirely upon his oral reading to find this out.

Doubtless some of you have wondered why I had not tried phonics before this. The truth of the matter is, I was greatly prejudiced against the phonic method of teaching reading, or at least against what I supposed was the phonic method.

I had once known a teacher who claimed to make all the use of phonics that was necessary in teaching reading, and I had frequently visited her school room. She had on the board what she called a "phonic chart." Whenever the class grew restless and the situation seemed to demand something in the way of a sedative, this teacher had the children look upon the board while she pointed to the chart and they altogether said over the chart in monotonous tones:

a says a as in cat
e says e as in net
i says i as in pin

o says o as in not
u says u as in tub, etc.

I asked to see how she introduced phonics in her regular lesson, and she gave an exercise, which as well as I can remember was about like this: She wrote upon the board

	an	en	in
Under this she wrote			
	tan	ten	tin
	fan	fen	fin
	pan	pen	pin

and then had the children sound them.

I asked what benefit the children derived from this. She said that such exercises in phonetics trained the children to articulate clearly. But I had noticed that she drilled upon words, and manufactured devices for teaching them as wholes, just as I did; and she had pointed out quite a number of backward pupils who, having been kept at home three weeks by the measles, could not read with their class at all, not knowing any of the words that had been taught during their absence. She bemoaned the fact that she would have to form a new division of these children and teach them as a separate class, in the meantime improvising something in the way of seat work, such as paper cutting, stick laying, etc., to keep them employed until she could find time to drill them upon the words they did not know.

She was a bright woman and "well up" on methods of teaching. When she said that there was really no such thing as a phonic method of teaching reading, that it was merely a devise for teaching sounds in order to train the child in distinct enunciation, and should be carefully separated from reading proper, I had no reason to disagree with her, and so I dismissed the subject from my mind.

But when a change of positions placed me where I could not use so much latitude in selecting my own methods, as heretofore, and where the educator, under whose direction I was to work, understood phonics and expected me to use the phonic method in teaching reading, I was forced to give the matter further thought. I found that there was a great deal more in phonics than I had supposed, and that I had a great deal of hard work to do before I could teach it successfully or before I should attempt to do so at all.

I had long felt that we should as much as possible anticipate

the difficulties that the child would find when he came to read his lesson, and that, in some kind of preparation, we should provide means for his overcoming these difficulties. I could never give my own consent to have any child "slide over" a single word that he came to in reading and that he did not know, and yet I had heard as a pedagogical principle that "anything which detracts from the power to give the mind to the work of relating ideas hinders the reading process." The sounding of an unknown word in the middle of a sentence would certainly be considered a hindrance in the process of getting the thought of the sentence; but I found that as soon as the child could do this readily he could go on with thought getting so quickly as to suffer little or no loss. I felt, too, that while work for the young child should as far as possible be spontaneous and pleasurable, he could not too early acquire the habit of work, the power of putting forth real effort, and of gaining keen intellectual pleasure in overcoming difficulties. I knew that he formed this habit when he learned to depend upon himself in getting new words by sounding them.

The advocates of the exclusive phonic method teach the elementary sounds of the vowels and consonants first, then the sounds of the combinations, and spend as much as three months, I believe, in teaching the children to sound and write a large number of words before a book is placed in their hands. I did all this in teaching my classes by the phonic method, except that I did not wait so long before I had them use a book.

I tried to bring into the teaching of reading all the strong points of the various methods I had studied. Of course the manner of procedure depended somewhat upon the subject of the reading lesson. I have described sufficiently the manner in which, before I studied phonics, I had board exercises and action lessons, silent readings and lessons based upon nature study. I continued to give these in the same way, with the additional use of phonics. After the children read a sentence they pointed out and named the words composing it. If these were words that came within their knowledge of phonics they analyzed them into their letters by sound. This power to get words by sounding them increased rapidly, for I had regular phonic drills every day, separate and distinct from the reading lesson. I had, also, as part of the preparation for the day's reading, a drill upon the phonetic words that were in the reading lesson, and with these I gave other words containing the same combination of letters that were to be sounded in

the same way, and, in this way, made a new drill with every reading lesson. Words that were too difficult to sound I taught as wholes. I began to use a reading book as soon as possible. Instead of nature readers I selected first readers that contained good pictures—pictures of children, pictures exhibiting the scenes and activities of home life, pictures of domestic animals, etc. I had my doubts about pictures from the old masters, and pictures of foreign peasant life, of which our children knew nothing. At this stage children are not reading to learn about art.

As soon as possible I put into their hands real literature, the literature of childhood, such as folk stories, fairy stories, fables, legends and rhymes.

I gave more attention to the preparation for reading the lessons than ever before. Besides the phonetic drills they studied the pictures in the lessons, if there were any, and we talked about them. While talking about the picture, I used such words of the lesson as were unknown to them, and of whose meaning they were ignorant; often writing the word as I spoke it, thus placing the word as a whole before their eyes while the concept was in their mind's eye.

If it was a story with no picture, I told it as nearly as possible in the words of the book, writing any new word in it at the proper time, as I did while we were studying the picture. Afterwards there was a rapid drill upon these words for the sole purpose of drilling the children into ready recognition of them, though I knew that such might be condemned as savoring too much of teaching the form of the word. When the children began to read the lesson I tried to have no interruptions, but if a child came to words he did not know, I required him to sound phonetically the elements of the words if these were such as came within their power.

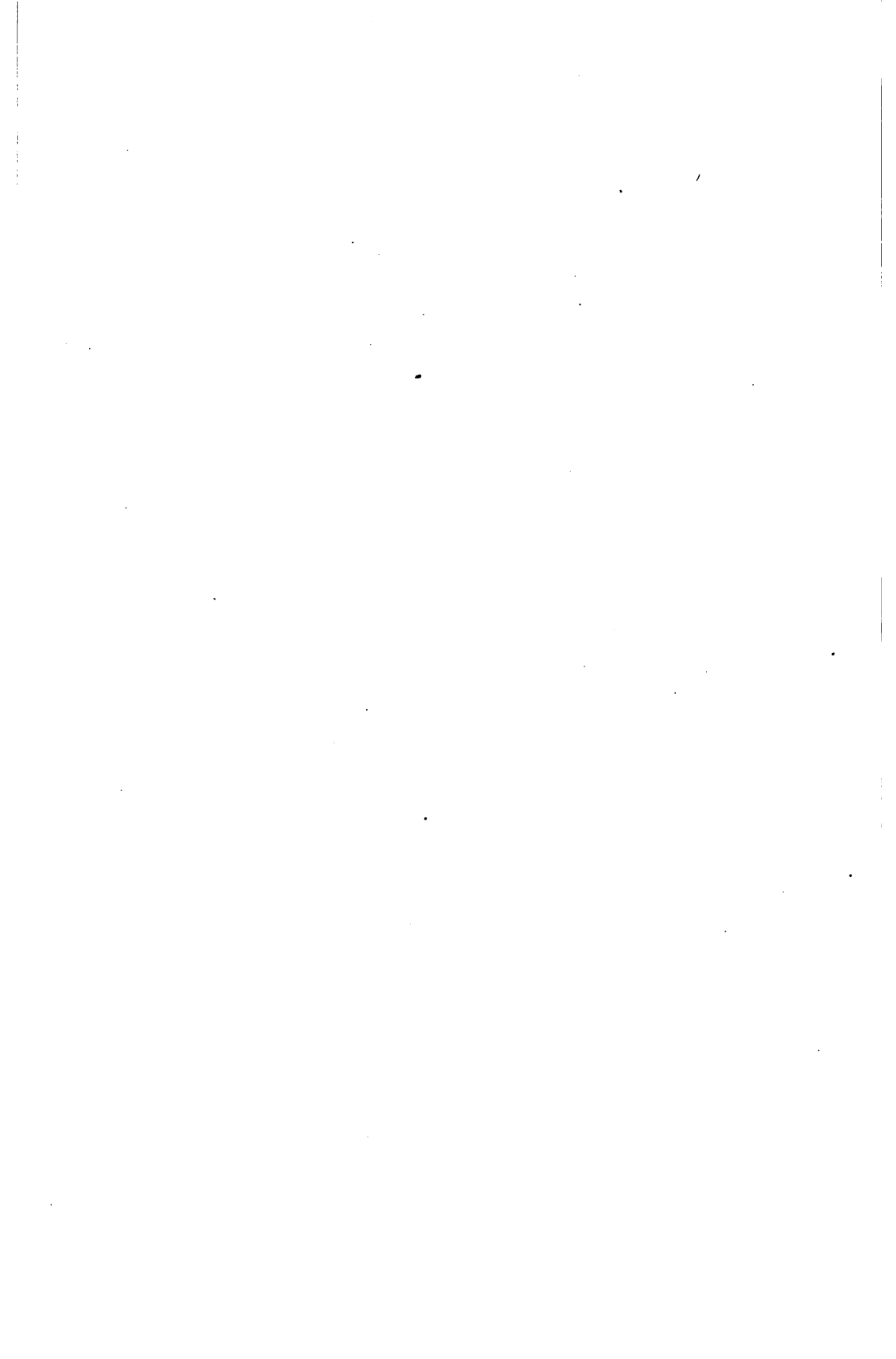
After the lesson had been read several times I had some of the children tell the story in their own language. I never mentioned the term "expression," yet they read with expression. I never once asked them to "think," but they did read for the thought. I did not say much about studying, but they learned, even in the first year, to study a reading lesson, the board exercises in silent reading and the drills in phonics doing more to give them the power to do this than anything else.

For me the teaching of reading has been a series of partial failures, and one experiment after another. And, as I have indi-

cated, it was only by combining in my work the strongest points found in each method that I succeeded in doing the work with any degree of satisfaction to myself. The class I taught last read in the first year three primers, four first readers, some of Baldwin's "Fairy Stories and Fables," and a part of McMurray's "Classics for the Little Ones." The next year they finished the last two books and read Baldwin's "Fifty Famous Stories Retold," Eggleston's "Great Americans for Little Americans," and McMurray's "Robinson Crusoe."

I suppose I must confess to using a combination method, and I fear I shall fall into disrepute with those who teach reading by the phonetic method, excluding everything which is included in the other methods; but I taught as I found I could do it best. The more I think about this work the more I am inclined to believe that we fail too often because we do not give enough time and thought to the mechanics of reading in the preparation and to the thought getting in the presentation.

In conclusion I must frankly confess that for me there are still many unsolved problems connected with the teaching of reading.



DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session—South Carolina College, Friday, December 27, 2:30 P. M.

The department was called to order at 2:30 p. m. in the chapel of South Carolina College, by President Robert Frazer, of Farmville, Va. The attendance was large. Every person whose name appeared on the programme was present.

Dr. A. Caswell Ellis, of the University of Texas, read a paper on "The Psychology Course in Normal Schools: What Should It Include and What Exclude?"

The paper was discussed by Miss C. S. Parrish, of the Woman's College, Lynchburg, Va.

Prof. D. L. Earnest, of the State Normal School, Athens, Ga., and Principal C. L. Hayes, of the State Normal School, DeFuniak Springs, Fla., delivered addresses on "The Call upon Normal Schools."

The President appointed as a committee on nominations, President W. K. Tate of the Meminger Normal School, Charleston, S. C.; Dr. T. J. Woofter of the Milledgeville Normal and Industrial College, Milledgeville, Ga.; and Professor D. L. Earnest of the State Normal School, Athens, Ga.

A committee on Teaching Psychology was also appointed to report at the next meeting of the department, as follows:

COMMITTEE ON TEACHING PSYCHOLOGY

Dr. A. Caswell Ellis, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.; Dr. T. J. Woofter, Georgia Normal and Industrial College, Milledgeville, Ga.; Dr. W. F. Moncreif, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.; Dr. L. W. Kline, State Normal School, Farmville, Va., and Miss C. S. Parrish, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.

The department adjourned to Saturday, December 28.

*Second Session—South Carolina College, Saturday, December 28,
2:30 P. M.*

The meeting was called to order by the President. The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

President—L. W. Kline, Farmville, Va.

Vice-President—Celestia S. Parrish, Athens, Ga.

Secretary—C. L. Hayes, DeFuniak Springs, Fla.

Dr. L. W. Kline, of the State Normal School, Farmville, Va., read a paper on, "The Civilized Man; the Elements of his Making."

Dr. T. J. Woofter, of the Georgia Normal and Industrial College, Milledgeville, Ga., discussed the subject at length.

Prof. J. W. Thomson, of the Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C., read a paper on, "The Importance of the Training School in Normal Work."

Prof. P. P. Claxton, editor of the Atlantic Journal of Education and professor of Pedagogy in the State Normal and Industrial College, Greensborough, N. C., discussed Prof. Thomson's paper.

Prof. W. K. Tate, president of the Meminger Normal School, Charleston, S. C., read a paper on, "The Relation of the State University to Public Instruction."

The meeting adjourned.

C. L. HAYES,
Secretary.

*THE NORMAL SCHOOL COURSE IN PSYCHOLOGY:
WHAT IT SHOULD EXCLUDE, WHAT
INCLUDE*

A. CASWELL ELLIS, UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

At the outset, I am sure you who teach psychology in normal schools have a right to object that a man should attempt to discuss this question who never gave a psychology lesson in a normal school, and consequently can have little personal knowledge of the class of students, the peculiar needs and demands, the trials and tribulations in this work in the present state of educational development in the South. These serious limitations to my qualifications I frankly admit, and in whatever I may say, recognize that I am speaking as one off on the hill top watching the battle and not as a captain leading in the thick of the fight and confronting and overcoming thousands of difficulties which the outside observer knows nothing about. Yet this very freedom from the routine and detail, this separation from actual labor and turmoil and conflict, may at times enable an outsider to get a perspective that is wider, if less accurate in detail, to notice useless labors and wide unnecessary detours made in the marching, and to point out less arduous paths and more commanding positions of battle. Hear me then, as an outsider, as one who has merely visited normal schools, and inspected numerous public schools taught by normal graduates, and attempted personally to give advanced psychological training

to normal school students from various parts of the country who have come into my university classes.

In general, the striking features of the normal school graduate's psychology, so far as my observation goes are:

1 An awe-aspiring and most unwholesome ability to give clear cut-and-dried definitions of all the mental faculties.

2 An absolute ignorance of the several methods of psychological study by which our psychological knowledge has been gained, and by which each teacher will have to enlarge his own knowledge as he advances in life.

3 Almost complete ignorance of the results of those phases of abnormal, animal, physiological, and child psychology which have immediate bearing upon educational problems. Their training has been apparently confined entirely to book-learning, and that restricted to introspective psychology of the average adult.

Now don't imagine that I think this a fair estimate of what is taught in our normal school psychology classes. No doubt these students were given wonderful words of wisdom for nine solid months, but this was all they brought with them to the University. If I have not taught a normal class, I have had experience enough to know this marvelous capacity of the average student's mind to miss or distort the winged words of professorial eloquence and wisdom. Three times each year as I sadly and tearfully read the examination papers of my own class and see the wonderful and fearful things I am quoted as having taught, I am forced to wipe out of my mind every lingering trace of youthful belief in my own omniscience, even in regard to the subject matter of psychology or the proper methods of teaching it.

Having blundered around now for many years in teaching courses in the psychology of education, the conclusion has been forced upon me at the end of each year that I have attempted to teach much that is comparatively useless to teachers, and omitted much that is valuable. Taking this critical view each year and eliminating and adding accordingly, a course has been evolved, the statement of some general features of which may possibly help others of you striving with a similar problem. First then let us consider what we can leave out of our psychology course for teachers.

1. All metaphysics. Metaphysics is all right in its proper place, but with immature normal students it is mere mud, and in

the few cases in which it is not mud it is useless for their psychological purpose. What is mind, what is matter, how can mind affect matter, and all such questions can be stated, left at once, and some common sense view arbitrarily taken as a working hypothesis—its arbitrariness of course omitted—and the whole matter dropped.

2. We should cut off about three-fourths of the time given to teaching clear-cut definitions of memory, attention, will, etc., and trying to mark out the line between an act of memory and an act of imagination, or an act of conception and one of perception, an act of attention and an act of will, etc., etc., etc., to exhaustion. Most of our psychology text-books have these definitions now nicely marked with italics or bold faced type, and never a lesson or an examination passes that these quotations are not memorized and confidently hurled at the teacher—sometimes, it is true, a *not* or an *of* is left out by the student and the sense wholly reversed; and three months later I find my best definers have no more knowledge of how the mind really acts in perceiving or recalling an idea than the small boy had of the equator who said it was "A menagerie lion running around the earth half way between the poles."

Of course it is necessary to have a more or less definite meaning attached to each psychological term, so that teacher and pupil may each understand what the other is talking about when using these terms. But even this need I find we exaggerate; because in general most people have already fairly uniform meanings attached in their mind to such words as memory, imagination, etc., and in most of the psychology that a teacher needs they can get along with very little coaching on the meaning of these terms. The more closely one studies psychology the less he is able to see those clear lines of demarcation in the various phases of mental life which are indicated by our accurate definitions. The more one studies of real mental life, the more irreconcilable becomes our little bundle of fictions about faculties, and the more apparent is the hopeless inextricability of these faculties and the persistent unity of mental action and life.

It is not only possible that a student should be able to define accurately the name at the top of every chapter in psychology and still not have one idea that would aid him in presenting a lesson in history to a twelve-year-old boy or in discovering the motive or correcting the mental habit behind the troublesome pupil who keeps the whole school in turmoil, but, indeed, he may be posi-

tively hindered from getting a working knowledge of the mental stock in trade and laws of activity of the minds which will later be under his training because of this false way of looking at the mind and this wordy pretense at knowledge.

In this connection we would advise leaving out most of the discussions as to the relative correctness of the different definitions of the same term as these are given by various psychologists: for the psychologists themselves disagree as to the meaning of terms perhaps more widely than do average students. After leaving out metaphysics, begging the question of all ultimate problems, and reducing definitions and faculty psychology to a minimum, I believe there still needs to be cut out much of our pretended application of psychological laws, which is often in fact a mere empirical method first hit on by experience, and the so-called psychological law inferred from the experience and then cited to prove the soundness of the method. The worst sins in this line are now being committed in so-called child psychology, where, for instance, the processes of mental development at certain periods of life have been inferred to be thus and so on no better evidence than that certain culture material has always been given children at this age, and then this so-called psychological fact is made a so-called psychological basis for offering this same and similar culture material at this age. In short, we pretend that we have more educational psychology than we really do have, and deal out more platitudes of method and make a pretense of backing it up with psychological laws, when the psychological facts are mere philosophic inference or guess work.

I regret to say that one of the most profound works in educational psychology published in the last few years is not free from this error.

Having in this way eliminated about one-half of the material which my limited experience leads me to believe is included in most normal school courses, North and South, we have room to add a great deal of valuable material which is now left out of these courses.

Let us consider next what should be included in the normal school psychology course.

Stated in general terms, the normal school course in psychology should accomplish three things:

- 1 Inspire a permanent interest in psychological problems, and give the teacher that attitude of mind which will enable him

to appreciate, and in part sympathetically reproduce in himself, the mental life going on in his pupils.

2 Equip the young teacher with practical methods of observing and interpreting the psychological facts which will confront him in actual life.

3 Give an acquaintance with those phases of our psychological knowledge which have a bearing upon the work of education.

Let us consider these now somewhat in detail beginning with the last. What psychological knowledge do we have which has a pedagogical bearing? It is essential that this knowledge of the facts of psychology pure and simple be given, if the student is ever to have a criterion by which to judge the methods of teaching. My experience has forced upon me the conclusion that it is dangerous to teach the methods and the bearing without first giving a wide study of the pure psychologic facts—McMurry's, or anybody's else, general method taught to average students without previous or parallel study of the facts of pure psychology upon which these or other methods are based, is liable to be as misleading as the Westminster Catechism taught to children who don't know the difference between the spirits in the Bible and one of the "sperits" in Uncle Remus' ghost tales. Out of two university classes in methods of over sixty students each, part of whom had taken psychology and part had not, my assistant who examined their final papers for two years said that practically none of those who had not the additional psychological training showed more than a memoriter or verbal knowledge of the methods. Our normal school students have usually no previous psychological training and the normal course must therefore give these psychological facts and give them all. The application of many of them the students will possibly not see till later, many of the applications are obvious, and a few others it is desirable that the teacher should either draw out of his class, or if he is not talented enough to do this, then draw them out of himself before the class.

In presenting these psychological facts the following order is the most successful one I have been able to devise: First, introductory lectures interspersed with questions as to the purpose and methods of psychological study. The introspective, the physiological, the abnormal, the animal, and the child psychology are each briefly mentioned, the advantages and limitations of each method and each field are pointed out and illustrated in one or more concrete cases. For example, the use of introspection in the study

of perception—its limitations in the study of emotions; the advantage of physiological psychology in the study of memory and association; the light thrown on the study of the personality and of the emotions from abnormal psychology; the new views in instinct, in habit and in the psychology of criminals gained from the study of animal psychology; the clear view of the wide difference between children and men both in mental quality and quantity which can be gotten only by study of child psychology.

After this introduction, a concrete piece of mental life is given to the class to analyze. In order to be certain that this is genuine, I simply let my mind go and reverie for a few moments and at once afterwards write out the thoughts just as they come. This reverie is read to the class and they try to tell why the thoughts came, and why they came in this order. All the so-called laws of association are invariably quickly found in this reverie by the class, and often with great difficulty are they shown to be reducible to the one simple law that when two or more ideas have been in mind together, upon the recurrence of one the others tend to come with it. Next the class searches for the determining factors which cause one rather than another of these related ideas to come into mind at any particular time.

This study of association drags in memory and the question of how to improve it, which in turn forces us to analyze an act of memory into its psychological elements, and also to look into its physiological basis. Here abnormal psychology, especially in the matter of aphasia, must be brought in, and experimental work reported. The following problems a teacher wants answered about the memory: First, can it be improved, and how? This is answered easily. Second, does this increased power of memory in one field of work give a like increase in another field—does, for instance, learning poetry help one afterwards on irregular German verbs? This has been settled by experiment. Third, do similar sets of memories help or hinder in the acquisition of a new set? Should two similar languages be learned during the same year, or one first mastered and the other learned later? Fourth, during what age is a child's memory best for disconnected facts; what age best for logically connected facts? Fifth, What is the best method for memorizing disconnected facts—the same for logically connected material. On all of these points Ebbinghaus, James, Burnham, Münsterberg and others have experimented with fairly defi-

nite results, and some of these problems are so easily tested that an intelligent normal student could with a little encouragement test it for himself. No apparatus and little time is required.

The consideration of memory with us invariably leads into imagination, for the two can not be separated in fact, and here the study of the different types of imagination gives opportunity for practice of introspection; the facts lead into abnormal psychology again, and the question of the creative power of the imagination later appeals to the same field for answer. Here again the child psychology must answer the question as to the periods of nascency and predominance of the imagination, and the relation of it to other powers. In the question of its proper development the fairy tale problem must be met.

Imagination leads into perception naturally, and here the elements of perception when analyzed go back through association and memory and imagination on the one hand and lead on to sensation on the other. Perception affords the best opportunity for illustrating the greater accuracy and clearness which the laboratory experiment makes possible. Most students will when asked, for instance, why they perceive you as standing at the board, state that they perceive you there because you are there—in general that things are perceived as such because they are such. Now rotate before the class a disk with a spiral drawn upon it and stop the disk suddenly. When they then see the spiral apparently go in the opposite direction while the disk is motionless, they must admit that we do not see a thing as such merely because it is such; for a motionless thing is perceived here as if in motion. Then what makes us perceive things as we do? Rotate now a disk painted so as to produce alternate rings of gray and blue. At once they see the gray becomes yellowish. Rotate the same gray ring with surroundings in turn of green, of red, of yellow; and each time the color of the gray will seem different. In this way one thing which modifies our perceptions will be discovered—namely, the surrounding objects. In the same definite concrete way the influence of the immediately preceding perception can be shown, and then the fact that our whole past experience may, and some part of it always does, join with the present sensations in creating the perception of even the simplest thing. Here you have apperception already explained, and the half hour used up in the experimental demonstration well spent in illustrating one import-

ant method of psychological study and in impressing upon the students the truth of perception in a way which they do not so soon forget as they do mere talk.

The study of perception brings in the new element of sensation which now demands study. Here there is comparatively little of value for teachers and the psychology text-books are frequently too full of it. The creative nature of the sense process should be made manifest. The fact that our organism is capable of responding to very few of the myriad of vibrations probably around us should be pointed out. The selective nature of our physiological mechanism and of our consciousness should be mentioned, and the general laws governing sensations should be experimentally demonstrated: law of the threshold, of subliminal stimuli and summation of stimuli, of specific energy of nerves, of relativity and fusion of sensations. The apparatus for this costs only a few dollars and the work itself is valuable and interesting to students.

After this general survey, one sense, as for instance sight, might with advantage be treated somewhat fully as a type of the others.

This study of sensations and sense organs leads inevitably, if the students have any life at all, into questions about the structure of the brain. Though charts are very misleading, the microscopic anatomy of the brain and spinal cord can be taught fairly well in this way to the limited extent to which it is needed by students of educational psychology. With the aid of a few slides and microscopes and charts, a teacher can in two or three two-hour periods give all that the average student needs in order to understand reflex and volitional mechanism, and to get some idea of the physical basis of association, memory, etc.

This should be followed by a lesson on localization of function in the brain, and the study of so much of the gross anatomy as can be gotten by the dissection of a sheep brain during two periods of laboratory work.

Just what is best to take up next has often puzzled me, but generally I find the study of localization leads into discussion of nervous functioning in general. The inherited unlearned reactions should be mentioned here, though not fully treated till instinct is studied. The three methods which the organism has of acquiring new reactions should certainly be impressed upon the students; namely: first, the selection and repetition of chance successful reactions; second, by imitation; third, by volitional response to an

idea. It is very important that the young teacher appreciate fully how very differently different things must be acquired by the mind.

General nervous function leads into a study of the physiology of habit, which in turn brings up the psychology of habit. Here the teacher has interest both in the physical and mental basis of habit, and in several practical questions which psychology alone can settle: First, What is the easiest method of establishing a new habit; second, How best break an old one; third, When should processes be reduced to habit and when not; fourth, What is the effect of habit upon the will and character—here brief study of reformatory methods and criminal psychology is helpful; fifth, What are the usual and most probable habits both good and bad to be expected, or to be established, or to be broken up at different ages?

This last question leads into a study of instinct. Here is a field the importance of which for education is just beginning to be appreciated. The work of Darwin, Romanes, Morgan, Mills, Thorndyke, Hall, Kline, Burke, and others must be sifted by the teacher. I have found no other subject more interesting to my classes and certainly no chapter in psychology has more profound bearing upon education. Animal and child psychology have here worked a revolution, and to stick to any text book yet written is almost a crime. The earnest teacher wants to know and the live class will ask about many things here. How did instincts originate? The relation of instinct to intelligence? Does man have instincts? What are these instinctive tendencies in man? At what age is each of his instincts, good or bad, most likely to crop out? What conditions favor and what repress each? Which of these instinctive tendencies are necessarily transitory? Which may become fixed? What fixes an instinct? What stimulates it? What checks it? Which of the early instincts prepare the way for later good instincts or hold down bad ones? Which of the later instincts check off early bad ones? etc., etc.

Instincts involve emotions and the student here has a need to know the causes which produce emotions. This is one chapter of psychology in which a comparison by the class of several authors' views is valuable: First, the general view that emotions result from ideas; second, James' notion that they result from bodily conditions; third, Herbart's theory that they result solely from the conflict or harmony of the ideas in mind. Each of these has

something of truth and, when properly understood, some suggestions for education. The usual cataloguing and describing of emotions is useless for teachers, but one of the emotions deserves especial study: i. e., the emotion or feeling of *interest*. What are children's natural interests at different ages? What purpose in life does each of these serve? How is a new interest aroused, how checked? What is the effect upon the character of studying always along lines of interest, and the effect of the opposite process of ignoring or crushing interests? These are a few of the questions in this line which psychology can and should answer.

The time allotted to this paper precludes going into the remaining topics in even this very cursory manner. Suffice it to say, that after interest comes at least imitation and suggestion, attention, discrimination, conception, reason, personality and will.

In each of these topics there are valuable facts and principles of activity, similar to those already mentioned, which every school teacher ought to know; and in giving him these facts the several methods and sources of psychology should be laid before him.

In teaching these facts, the method seems to me almost as important as the matter. Although it has been necessary to break up the mind into several faculties and study each phase somewhat isolatedly, yet stress should ever be laid upon its unity, and the constant dependence of each phase of mind on all others. The course in psychology is a failure which does not force upon the mind of the students the fluidity of the facts of mental life, and put an end to what Prof. James calls the morbid craving for departments and divisions and subdivisions with headlines and black-faced type to commit to memory. This last can, however, never be fully done by this study of separate disjointed phases of mind. Hence, this necessary and valuable treatment of the subject ought always to be supplemented by a study of psychology which considers the mind as a unity, and studies, not the capacity of one faculty at a time, nor the relation of one phase of mind to another phase, but considers the mind as a whole—what things it can do and be, what relations does it as a whole at one period bear to it as a whole at another period, etc.? This study of the mind as a unity, cross sectioning at once all the faculties, is more akin to the kind of practical study which the teacher will have to make every day of his life as an educator, both in teaching and in disciplining.

This method of study forces us beyond the range of introspection and outside of the psychology of adults. Since it is a room

full of differing, immature and growing children which the teacher will have to educate, it is silly for him to expect to find adequate guidance in his perplexities from the study of the psychology of adults. You had as well think a football trainer completely qualified to manage the diet and the exercises of a foundling hospital. We know that the bodies of children differ widely from those of adults, both anatomically and functionally, that they differ widely among themselves, and that the same body passes during growth through many differing phases. The physician and physical trainer must learn these; and likewise the young teacher should be given a general idea of the various phases of development through which the human mind passes in its growth to maturity. He should know which of these characteristics are transitory, which permanent, how the preceding and succeeding phases are related to each other, what mental characteristics to expect of children at certain ages. The teacher wants to know when is interest in mere sense experience keenest; when does the imagination get its development in each phase, and what experience produces this; when does the will manifest itself and what class of experiences effect this; when does reason appear; when does it begin to dominate the mind; what mental treatment develops it; what motives usually appeal to the young child; what to the adolescent; what are the natural interests, the mental dangers and mental powers characteristic of the early period of rapid body growth till seven years of age; the same of the period of slow growth from seven till near puberty; what are the new forces set free at puberty and during adolescence, etc., etc.

In each of these cases it can, of course, never be told absolutely what to expect of any particular child during any specified year, but in every case the young teacher can learn before hand the range of probable variation, both healthy and unhealthy, and being thus forewarned can be forearmed, and neither needlessly worry over the transitory and harmless nor overlook the dangerous till it has taken such deep root that in order to tear it out, the whole organism must suffer.

These are some of the things which our normal school courses in the psychology of education should give. That much of value has been omitted in this treatment, I feel sure; but my experience has demonstrated that such a course is, as far as it goes, full of help and suggestion for young teachers, and one which intelligent students will eagerly study and can master in one year, giving

three one-hour recitations per week and six to ten laboratory periods of two hours each during the year.

A psychology course for unprepared normal students of less breadth and seriousness than this is an utterly inadequate preparation for a trained teacher, and is often a positive injury.

I must apologize for speaking of my own course and using the first person so frequently. The subject has long interested me and I have often wished to know, have studied dozens of catalogues, and inquired as to what was contained in normal courses in psychology, but have failed thus far fully to find out; and hence was forced to give my own experience or talk in the air. I hope this will lead others more capable and experienced than I to give us the benefit of their experience.

In conclusion, let me say that I am sure a great work could be done in improving the psychology courses in our normal schools if we could all pool our experiences, and each borrow from all the others. A committee should be appointed consisting of normal school professors, university professors, and trained school superintendents, who should confer, formulate and send out questions covering the work seeking suggestions from many teachers. With this information carefully digested, such a committee, with the wide experience and broad training represented, could prepare suggestions as to the method of presentation, and an outline of a course in educational psychology, which would leave out the pedantic, the false, the useless, and give our students a sound and helpful knowledge of the laws of growth and activity which govern the minds they are soon to train and educate.

DISCUSSION

PROF. CELESTIA S. PARRISH, GEORGIA NORMAL SCHOOL

The Normal School course in Psychology: What it Should Exclude, What Include.

It is a little unfortunate for this discussion, perhaps, that Dr. Ellis and I occupy somewhat the same position with regard to Psychology in the Normal School. I have not taught this special subject in a Normal School since the days when modern Psychology was so little known that I worked hard at Dr. McCosh for my Normal School classes. Still, as I was a Normal School teacher for nine years, I can probably claim to have been in the thick of the fight once, though for nine years past I have been viewing the battle from a slight eminence. There is a prospect now that I shall be promoted from the college to the Normal School and that I shall teach

Psychology there, hence my interest in Dr. Ellis' paper has been very great. When I began to listen to it, I watched eagerly for something I could criticise—for something which I could not endorse. In my opinion, these meetings of the Southern Educational Association are entirely too free from criticism and discussion of the views advanced. We are too complimentary to each other and have fallen too much into a mutual admiration society, in which we are apt to forget that whole truth can be gotten from no one person and that even the one-sided truth we can get in this way is sure to be crusted over with errors arising from personal predilections and prejudices, and that this incrustation can be removed only by the fire of criticism. I determined, therefore, to criticise the paper assigned me as severely as I could, but as the reading proceeded, I found to my intense disappointment, that I was saying "Amen" to nearly every sentence of it. Since, then, there is nothing worth speaking of to criticise, my discussion will have to consist of a little emphasis here, some elaboration there and, probably, a slight note of dissent now and then.

Dr. Ellis opens his paper by pointing out the mental attitude toward Psychology, of the Normal School students who come to him for more. He indicated their readiness for sharp definition, their glibness in meaningless words and their utter ignorance of the human mind or any method of studying it. This is due, he thinks, to a too slavish use of a text-book. My own observation and experience have been that not only is there a slavish adherence to a text-book, but, frequently the text-book is one not in Psychology at all, but in a jumble of logic, Ethics and Metaphysics with sometimes a little garbled Physiology and Psychology thrown in. Haven's Mental Philosophy is still used in some schools and is called Psychology. Only nine years ago, I had to displace Hopkin's Outlines of Man from a college and less than one year ago my "intolerance" of this and similar text-books in Psychology (?) was "thrown up" to me as an evidence of my own narrow mindedness in matters philosophical. I was so afraid of narrow mindedness in another direction that for a year or two I let my students buy the book mentioned and then used with them no book at all. A number of seminaries that call themselves progressive still use books of this type and there are a number of Normal Schools where text-books not much better are simply memorized. Little or no experimentation is done. There seems to be an idea even among well-trained Psychologists that experimental Psychology is a separate and advanced discipline. After one experience with Chemistry and Physics and one final settling down to the conviction that the elementary parts of these sciences are the very ones that must be taught experimentally it is a little annoying that we should go over the same ground with Psychology instead of avoiding the same mistakes. Of course this is only a transitory phase of thought. After a while we shall come to feel that Psychology without a laboratory of some sort is as impossible as we now know Chemistry to be under the same circumstances. At present there are, so far as I know, only two or three Psychological laboratories in the South, and these are, for the most part, pitifully inadequate. If we are to have Psychology properly taught in the normal school, there must be a small laboratory in each and a teacher who knows how to use it. This is plain talk, but the truth should be faced.

Just as it has usually been thought in small colleges that the president must teach the Philosophy, the term Philosophy being understood to include Psychology, whether he knew anything about it or not, so it is too often the custom in the Normal school to turn over the Psychology to the principal, regardless of his training. In a few cases, the principal has known a little Psychology, but in quite a number his absolute ignorance of it has compelled him to put a text-book in the hands of the students to be memorized, and as his knowledge of modern text-books has been as limited as his knowledge of the subject, he has usually selected a book long ago outworn. It is evident, I think, that before we can have any really good psychological work in the normal school, there must be a reversal of the policy I have mentioned and the employment of trained psychologists as teachers. As only too many trained psychologists have followed out rather blindly the absurd doctrine which Professor Münsterberg was understood to teach and which he now says he did not mean to teach, and have failed entirely to apply their psychological knowledge to their teaching practice, it will be necessary, also, to take care that these trained psychologists to whose tender mercies the teachers of our children are to be consigned, shall also be trained teachers. There is hardly a doubt but that the man or woman who is both trained psychologist and trained teacher will inaugurate at the very beginning a course of experimentation adapted to the needs and capacities of the students and that he will have a laboratory.

I heartily agree with Dr. Ellis that we should leave out of our normal school courses in Psychology all metaphysics, much of the cut-and-dried definition we have been giving and, practically, all discussion of mere terminology. It may be, too, that he is right as to the omission of much of "our pretended application of psychological laws," though no excess of that kind has come under my observation. On the contrary, I have been impressed with our failure to apply some of the laws whose operations are all important in deciding the destiny of the individual. The longer I study Psychology in its recent developments, the more fully persuaded I am of the possibility of a betterment of the human race by a judicious use of its laws and the upper limit of this betterment seems to me to reach almost to infinity. If all parents and teachers could understand and intelligently apply the laws of imitation, suggestion, instinct and habit in the training of children, we might reasonably hope for an immense advance in social purity, and righteousness and toward individual happiness and efficiency in one generation. If every teacher knew and could intelligently apply his knowledge of "sensible discrimination" to some training of the child in fine discrimination with regard to color and tone, the happiness of large numbers of children who now, "having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not," would be very largely increased. I am sure that Dr. Ellis did not mean what his words might be interpreted to imply because all the work he has laid down as suitable for the normal school student is, really, work in the discovery of laws and principles that not only admit of immediate application to educational procedure, but his inquiries are, in the very form of their annunciation, psycho-educational questions and their answer would involve educational method. There may, indeed, be some teachers of Psychology "who pretend that we have more educational Psychology than we

really have and deal in mere platitudes of method, making a pretense of backing it up with psychological laws;" but my observation has led me to deplore the fact that with a rich mine of psychological truth almost every nugget of which could be shaped into a law of guidance in child-training or in advanced education, so many teachers of Psychology should go on working in the spirit of the teacher of mathematics who, after a long demonstration over which his class had spent many hours thanked the Lord that the principle just demonstrated did not have and could not be made to have any practical application whatever.

I have alluded to the possibility of adapting some of the experimentation of the psychological laboratory to the sense-training of children. I know a lady who, when she was a small child could not distinguish one melody from another, and the grossest violation of the laws of time and rhythm in music did not jar upon her. She was thought to be incapable of pitch discrimination and was considered almost tone deaf. The possibility of training as a remedy never entered into the minds of her friends, who thought of her defects in this respect as an incurable infirmity or as much a part of the nature God had given her as the color of her eyes. No one dreamed of any injustice to her when she was left to go through life without the pleasure and the elevation of thought and life which come from a love for and an appreciation of music. Later, she was left for several years in an old family home under the care of two invalids and without the society of children. In this time, with the help of some "singing books" in which the music was written in "shaped" notes, she learned to sing entirely without a teacher. She got the tones corresponding to the notes from two or three melodies with which she was familiar from frequent repetition in her presence and then, carrying over this knowledge, learned to sing fairly well a number of songs which were entirely unfamiliar to her. Later still, when she was a young woman, she employed another young woman to give her certain exercises in "hearing" on a piano and she, herself, so selected and arranged these exercises that through their means she was trained in to some power in tone discrimination and quite a fair "sense" of rhythm and of musical time. She had never heard of experimental Psychology, but her methods of self-training were very similar to those used now in the Psychological laboratory.

Dr. Ellis' emphasis upon the psychology of the developing mind seems to me not only well placed, but very suggestive. It seems to me a truism to say that the teacher should not only know well what has already been learned about the psychology of childhood, but she should know how to study the individual children under her care and to modify her methods of teaching according to the results of such study. In the infancy of child-study and while even fairly intelligent mothers have not yet awakened to conscious motherhood, it seems advisable that every teacher of children should be sufficiently alive to the importance of the subject and sufficiently intelligent with regard to it to be able to arouse the mothers of his pupils to do some work in this line. It may seem abnormal to shape our normal school courses from the standpoint of a temporary condition, but the condition will probably last through one generation at least and such training of one generation of teachers would, therefore, not be wasted.

The truth of the position that methods of teaching should not be given to students without a previous training in Psychology can hardly be over-emphasized. An experience of nearly twenty years in teaching Pedagogy in some shape has convinced me that if both can not be had, Psychology without Pedagogy is far better for a teacher of average intelligence than Pedagogy without Psychology. It is the superficial sort of methodology gotten in this way which has brought Pedagogy into contempt and caused an attitude towards it which for the sort of "stuff" which can be gotten without a psychological background is well deserved. The teacher who has ability enough for any real success in his profession, with a good knowledge of Psychology will elaborate his own method after he has had some experience. The teacher with no psychological background will be helpless in view of every new contingency even though he knows all the cunning devices of teaching that have ever been used before him.

There are so many points of excellence in the paper I am trying to discuss that it will be impossible to mention them all. The method of teaching and the selection and arrangement of subject matter suggested are very fine. It is probable that no two teachers will find it advisable to use just the same method or the same topics throughout, but to begin with a concrete piece of mental life and proceed from that to a study of other "cross-sections" of mind will be good for all and will be a most wholesome change from some of the "flat, stale and unprofitable" work now done. The recommendation which, of all in the paper, would do the most general good if carried into effect is that for the appointment of a committee to study the methods of Psychology teaching now in use in the normal schools of the South and "prepare suggestions as to the method of presentation, and an outline of a course in educational Psychology, which would leave out the pedantic, the false and the useless, and give our students a sound and helpful knowledge of the laws of growth and activity which govern the minds they are soon to train and educate." The work of such a committee if done patiently, persistently and bravely, would result in untold blessings not only to the teachers but to the children who are to be taught in giving them as teachers, students of human nature and builders of mind and character instead of the ignorant quacks in whose power they are now so often placed.

THE CALL UPON NORMAL SCHOOLS

D. L. EARNEST, GEORGIA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

The state founding and fostering public schools establishes the normal school to the end that an efficient teaching force may be provided. The right and the duty to educate belongs properly to the parent. He may for the sake of economy or increased efficiency surrender that right to the state, or the state may undertake

the task and even compel attendance because democracy demands intelligence and acquaintance with all that enters into the making of a good citizen. The state prescribes the new education, which seeks to fit the powers which the child is known to have for a life correctly related to conditions as they are—actual, real conditions—and let it be said that the terms new and old as applied to education are not matters of chronology so much as matters of attitudes and tendencies and ideals. The old education seeks to train an ideal being for ideal conditions. With the old education are associated naturally the ideas suggested by private school, aristocracy, scholarship, in striking contrast to public school, democracy, and citizenship, of which the state fondly dreams while seeking to foster the new education.

Public school education is designed to fit a citizen for a happy life among his fellows, to train men who are intelligent, industrious, patriotic, and humane.

The ideal of the state is the man of affairs, trained to think promptly and wisely and to act forcefully and efficiently. The state aims to produce good citizens, good parents, good friends, men and women with whom it is a pleasure to live. She says to the normal school:

“Plan your course of study so as to fit my teachers to do the work for which I have set up my public schools. The home is the unit of civilization; my people must have social graces as well as clearness of thought and must look forward with pleasure to the building of a home.

“Half the present cost of living is unnecessary. Ninety per cent of the present death rate is due to hurtful indulgence of appetite and to ignorance of hygienic law. Train my people to stop this waste. My teachers must be men of brains rather than men of books, though an acquaintance with the masterpieces of literary genius is the joyful light of their lives and must ever be considered an essential part of all true education.

“My boys and girls must be taught the ways of the world so that the rural legislator may no longer blow out the gas. Teach the sanctity of life until the farmer shall cease to sacrifice his friend, the bird, and gentle woman cease to wear in her bonnet its beauteous plumage, suggestive of scalps and of savage sires.

“My boys must know their books and also the beauty and the value of things about them—how to do business, to work, to think, to live.”

If the state needs wisdom in legislative halls, she should grow statesmen; if her fertile fields lie untilled or are poorly tilled, she should train farmers—whatever she needs in the growing demands of her civilization she should put into her schools. Ideas make a people great; the state demands thinkers. Prosperity makes a people respected among the families of the world; the state calls for workers. Let no scoff at industrialism, or commercialism, or materialism deter you when the state calls you to this duty of training the young to become producers and builders and beautifiers, prosperous men and respected citizens. It is true that man does not live by bread alone; but no loaf, no life, no love.

Every child has a right to be well born. While educators and philosophers may improperly deny their duty on these premises, they can at least see that he is well bred. No partial education will do; the whole child calls upon the normal school for a competent instructor, not a mere drill master thumping upon the tin pan of memory while the whole gamut of child nature awaits the hand of a master to wake its slumbering melody.

When a Darwin can live with his soul dead to the music of verse and the touch of the poet's art we are made to feel that a life spent in a search for truth has its limitations and needs to have its labor of love lightened by the gladsome presence of beauty. No clink of gold and greed of gain, no busy bustle of industrial development must cause us to forget the needs of the soul and the demands of man's supreme self.

The state and the child call for teachers of superior worth, able to take the dry dust of fact, fashion it into beauty and fill it with life and spirit. The normal school will hear calls from many who advocate all sorts of fantastic fads and reforms, but if we make the demands of the state and the nature of the child our guides we shall not go far astray.

Our ideals call us to action; by ideals a man is judged, a nation, a system of education. An ideal finds its issue in purpose, then attainment. What are the purposes of a normal school? Instead of the tiresome trio of the old time school, the three R's, we have perhaps many lines of thought, but at least three M's, vital and fundamental, Matter, Method and Motive.

The teacher must have knowledge—more than he is expected to teach; for lack of it robs him of dignity and power. The curriculum must be rich and the instruction thorough; for the intellect grows in power by the act of mastery.

Method is more than the catchy tricks of trade. For devices many have run mad. Method is knowledge of the laws of growth and the scientific employment of the proper processes and means for bringing humanity to its highest degree of perfection. It thus includes the whole theory and practice of education. As human knowledge increases and civilization becomes more complex, and as acquaintance with man's powers and possibilities is perfected, there must be changes in studies and methods. The normal school is called upon to keep in touch with the times and satisfy the demands of civilization, of conscience and of the nature of the child, but the loudest, the most importunate call upon us is from a subject to which least attention has been paid by us, namely, the motives of men, actuated by which the teacher goes forth to his duty. The worth of character in the teacher can not be reached by inventory.

During the past session scores of letters have been received by our school asking for efficient male teachers for good positions and to the larger number the reply was sent that the supply was not equal to the demand. A good man is perhaps harder to find than a good woman, or it may be that the increasing prosperity of the South has tempted more men into business.

Two years ago a young man asked for a recommendation to a certain school where the conditions did not require extensive scholarship. He had shown pluck in a seven mile ride morning and night, had been studied upon the ball ground where he had shown no weakness of tongue or temper and was apparently an all round good, clean fellow. The letter of recommendation was written and the school secured. A few days ago a daughter of the gentleman to whom the letter was sent said, "I want you to write no more letters of recommendation." "Why? Didn't I tell the truth?" "Yes, he taught a good school and both pupils and patrons were well pleased with it." "What was wrong?" "He raised some money at an entertainment for the purchase of desks and kept it." Too bad, wasn't it, that his character should have in it such weakness—a good teacher and yet classed by his patrons as a common rogue?

Suppose you had written that letter, or had furnished some other kind of cloak for known or unknown defects? It is well not to lay less stress upon scholarship or methods but vastly more upon motives. Those who are training teachers are not doing enough

for the development of their moral character. This is our weakness and the call for reform is loud and full of distress.

The intellectual storehouse has not been well filled nor the intelligence thoroughly aroused as is shown by many of the papers presented at a state examination. The answers are often grotesque, telling of wasted time or poor opportunity, but the source of great anxiety is not lack of knowledge so much as lack of principle. Understand me. A crude intelligence will give crude judgments even in matters pertaining to morals; it can not do otherwise. Perhaps a poor speller is not immoral; perhaps he who makes 100 in arithmetic is not a man of probity. Moral sanity should also be tested and soundness of moral principles investigated. Too much is taken for granted; and much effort expended in behalf of moral culture is not scientific nor in accord with the teachings of modern pedagogy.

Let me draw you a picture—A summer evening at a prosperous farm house. On the front porch are seated three persons; an old farmer, self centered, stolid; a young lady, teacher of the neighboring school, cultured, keenly observant, responsive to every call of beauty; myself the third. In front, the road and a straggling drove of hogs, a steep bluff, a rippling river fringed with pines, a field of golden wheat, one of waving corn, a range of river hills and back of all a crimson summer sunset canopied over with crag and turret of sun-kissed cloud. The maiden: "How beautiful!" The farmer: "Yes, all them's our hogs." God has garlanded hill and dale with beauty, his bow of promise is a messenger of joy which comes clad in radiant garments of beauty; even the night is jeweled with gems, but all is lost on senseless souls. Moral beauty is sublime, and the moral vision should be trained to see it and let its light shine upon the soul, and then man shall live. We become like that of which we think; we see that of which we think; those who think only hogs, see only hogs, are only hogs.

Some see the duty of right and live in the shadow of God's anger; some see the beauty of right and live in the glad sunshine of His love.

The best of our views are but partial and need revision. All human attainments and attributes and powers are imperfect; it is not far from the truth to say that the motives of men are as full of faults and imperfections as is their scholarship. The call is,

"Are you laying most stress upon that which is most vital?" Do we reach the inner life and set right the springs of action?

Another picture: Two friends, a lawyer and a sad-eyed clerk fond of books but not gifted in the art of mingling with men. Night finds the two together. A candle, a fire, a manuscript, then an hour of poetry read with such dramatic power as to thrill the soul of the almost awe-struck lawyer. Before its author's hand can be stayed the matchless poem becomes a pile of ashes, with a "Such shall be my life." Gone to Texas, unknown, unheard of, unwept, unhonored and unsung. What a loss to man because he lacked faith, motive!

Into our schools they come, these teachers to be, to nibble at the bread of life because they are an-hungered, and they shall be sent forth with full hearts yearning to do some of God's work, resolved to do the right because it is beautiful. Failure in life often comes from lack of sense, sometimes from lack of skill or power, but generally from lack of motive. Moral development is made possible not by talk but by training, though the tongue hath its duty. Every school task may have a moral end in view and this will dignify and glorify what would otherwise sink to the tedium of drudgery. Inspiration and aspiration are communicated by induction from a surcharged and glowing personality.

In this thy field, dear normal teacher,
Put all thy heart and it shall swell
Till all the world, yea, all hungry souls
Shall pulse with life; and if it break,
As did the Master's when of old He stood
And viewed afar Jerusalem and wept, with outstretched arms,
Because His call was spurned,
Still the waves of thy love shall forever beat
O'er Time's great sea. Let love of all things good and true
And things of beauty be thy life's great motive.
Thou thy work must love and those for whom the labor;
All things else may die but love abideth ever.

DISCUSSION.

C. L. HAYES, PRINCIPAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, DEFUNIAK SPRINGS, FLA.

Before beginning his address proper, Principal Hayes said:

Professor Earnest and I having agreed to discuss different phases of the same subject I shall notice only a few points in his excellent address.

1. I would emphasize the importance of studying method only in connection with principles. The teacher who knows perfectly how to teach the third grade but knows

nothing about how to teach the fourth grade has not learned that what is good for the third grade is likewise good for the fourth grade with only sufficient modification to adapt it to slightly different conditions. Those who study method only are like one who learns to do one thing only in a great factory. When conditions in the form of new inventions make that one thing no longer necessary he is helpless. In a factory, such new conditions may arise perhaps once in a lifetime, but, in the school, conditions are always changing, and consequently method alone fails at every point.

2. With regard to moral training I have thought that an advertisement of a school board might very properly read: "Wanted: A man who can teach school!" with emphasis on the "man." The first requisite in the teacher is character. It is not so much "one who can teach" that is wanted as a man or a woman worthy of imitation. Without character no amount of scholarship or skill fits one for teaching.

3. The great need in the education of a youth is to give him worthy ideals. The primary concepts out of which his ideals are formed are derived largely from the personality of the teacher. Consequently the teacher should be as nearly a perfect man or woman as possible. It is the duty of the normal school to endeavor to furnish such teachers.

The nineteenth century was characterized as much by the development of the idea of free state education, as it was by its material advancement. In 1800 there were no really effective free schools anywhere in all the world. In 1900 free schools were general throughout nearly all the countries of Europe, the United States, Canada, Australia and elsewhere. In 1898 there were more than fifteen million pupils in the common schools of the United States alone and more than five and a half million in those of England alone.

This unprecedented increase in the number of schools created a corresponding increase in the demand for teachers. As the schools became effective people became correspondingly more intelligent, and arrived at a higher appreciation of the duties, responsibilities, and value of the school teacher as a member of society. This idea is not fully developed, but it is growing with very gratifying rapidity. People are learning that there are teachers and teachers. That there are teachers that ought not to be teachers, and, others that ought to be better teachers. They are also learning that ability to teach well, is not a simple gift of God, but that those to whom nature has given the fundamental gifts of good sense, good health, energy, patience, and love, may be fitted for the profession of teaching, just as people are fitted for other callings, that is by studying the underlying principles of their art, by intelligently observing the practice of it by others, and lastly by actually practicing it themselves, under proper guidance.

The realization of this truth has resulted in efforts to provide favorable conditions for training those who desire to teach, in a manner—though yet too often not in a degree—similar to the training given men in other professions. The outgrowth of this effort is the normal school. In this connection it is interesting to note that where the oldest state normal school in America was founded only sixty-two years ago, there were in 1898 one hundred and sixty-six public normal schools in the United States. These received appropriations for their support to the amount of \$2,510,934 besides \$560,896 for building purposes. It is also to be noted that though the Peabody Normal College, the parent of normal schools in the South, was founded only twenty-six years ago as a state institution with the expressed legal provision that it should be maintained "without expense to the state," twelve Southern States (including West Virginia) are now spending two

and a half million dollars annually for normal schools and teachers' institutes out of funds raised by taxation.

Let us come now to the consideration of the main question: The Call on Normal Schools.

Under ideal conditions the normal school would be an institution, devoting its entire attention to professional education. The requisite academic instruction would be given in the high schools and colleges. We find such conditions existing to a remarkable degree in the Province of Ontario. There, everywhere, in both city and country, the children have the advantage of at least ten months schooling in the year. Consequently they come to the magnificently equipped normal schools with minds trained to think, and well acquainted with the branches which they are preparing to teach. The high school graduates who wish to become teachers in the common schools enter the normal schools at Toronto and Ottawa. Those college graduates who desire to be inspectors and masters (superintendents and principals) enter the school of pedagogy at Toronto. We were surprised to find upon inquiry in Toronto that in a city of two hundred thousand people all of the teachers were normal school graduates. But the public school system of Ontario began seventeen years before our civil war and was not interrupted by such a catastrophe. Although to us who are engaged in the development of the normal schools of the South the progress often seems slow and the growth of interest scarcely perceptible, coming generations, we believe, will have abundant reason for regarding this quarter-century, as well as the last, as an era in which the normal school developed marvelously.

But, however much progress has been made, educational conditions with us are not ideal. Only a very small per cent of our teachers make any pretense of having received any professional training, and many of those who do so pretend have only that which they have received at a brief summer institute or at a sporadic normal school, the teachers of which have themselves had little or no professional training, and are often men and women of scant learning. Our common schools, upon which the great majority of our people naturally depend, do not give knowledge of the branches taught therein adequate for teaching those branches, not to mention subjects taught in the high schools. The view of the subjects as learned is contracted, and the knowledge possessed too often a matter of memory. With this very insufficient preparation, the young man or woman squeezes through a teacher's examination; then after teaching a few months for money with which to attend a normal school (and let due praise be given him for his effort) he presents himself for admission. Of that normal school he makes a demand, namely, that it shall prepare him for passing the next teacher's examination with a higher per cent than he passed the last.

Again there are those who, through the help of scholarships or by their own means, maintain themselves at the normal school for two years or more. Deficient in academic training, they are forced to give a great portion of their time and attention to literary study.

A third class, found largely in our city training schools, consist of

those who have completed a reasonable course of study and are ready to study as professional students. All of these and even others have their demands to make.

As the ideal normal school becomes clarified in the minds of the people, the demand will be less varied and more rational. The normal school itself will likewise be content to confine its efforts to lines of work which properly belong to it. It will be realized in the future that there is a difference between a true normal school and a transitory teachers institute. That special departments, such as business courses, stenography, type-writing and the like, though useful enough of themselves, are hindrances rather than helps. That while all the underlying principles of normal school economy are derived from the study of psychology, that psychology itself is properly divided into two very distinct fields, viz.: One that relates to the facts and another that relates to the theories. The first of these any one of average intelligence may know with certainty and apply profitably. The other the wisest reach only by subtleties of reason and can not demonstrate. Fortunately the known facts are sufficient for rational teaching.

We shall likewise learn that different lines of work belong to the normal school and to the department of education in the university. Briefly stated original research is the province of the university. Consequently whatever leads far into speculative or experimental psychology, philosophy, sociology, and advanced child study should be surrendered by the normal schools to the university, and the university departments should likewise surrender to the normal schools, those lines of work which clearly belong to them. The demand of the times is for specialization, and institutions of learning, by attempting to accommodate themselves to a great variety of patronage, degrade the character of their work and waste their substance in unnecessary rivalry.

It seems to us that although we must keep clearly in the distance the absolute ideal of what the normal school should be, we must set up before us, as temporary guides, ideals as nearly like the perfect one as existing conditions will justify. These we believe should be about as follows:

First—For students who can remain for three or four years courses of study, embracing at least a thorough high school course, a thorough study of the elementary facts of psychology, history of education, and the principles of school government, discipline and instruction.

Second—For those who can not remain long enough to complete such a course, a two years course which shall be not merely a review, but a new view, of all the common branches together with the elements of psychology, and lectures on the theory and art of teaching, such for example, as those given by David P. Page at Albany nearly sixty years ago. This should be accompanied by observation in a model school, so equipped and so conducted as to lead to the formation of a higher ideal of what a school for children should be, both with regard to its material equipment and its administration. This might properly be a part of the longer course.

Third—For those who can not spend as much as a year in the normal school, the institute of at least six weeks duration should be available. The purposes of the institute we believe should be mainly to enliven the pro-

fessional spirit, to broaden the view, to inspire young teachers with respect for scholarship and skill, to suggest through the example of competent instructors the value of adequate preparation, to give suggestions of the new view of studies that is possible in the normal school and college, and to bring the sequestered teacher in contact with up-to-date professional literature, methods and devices. The institute should not be regarded as a substitute for the normal school, nor even for the high school. We have come to the conclusion recently that much good institute work of this character might be done in the winter and spring annually under the suzerainty of state institutions. By bringing the institute to the university, college, or normal school, it is given facilities for work which it would not have in a remote place, and its members breathe, often for the first time, a wholesome and invigorating atmosphere, which tends to destroy conceit and create a desire for higher attainments.

Since with us the conditions are such that very few students receive adequate literary training before they enter the normal school, and by far the majority of them are compelled to return to their work before they graduate, we believe that the course of study should be so arranged as to give a section of professional as well as academic instruction to each student, each year. This may well be illustrated by the following diagram:

FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR	FOURTH YEAR
A C	A D E M	I C S T	U D Y
P R O	F E S S I	O N A L	S T U D Y

In order to make what I shall say as practical as possible, I should like to point out two difficulties which, in many places hinder the true development of the normal school.

First—An internal lack of unity, due in many instances to the presence of teachers in the faculty who do not understand fully the purpose of, and consequently do not appreciate the true worth of, the institution which they are serving. This is the inevitable outcome of making, to the least degree, places in the faculty of the normal schools the spoils of parties and politics.

Second—The lack of those in authority to provide assistance by means of which the head of the school may relieve himself of simple routine duties and give his attention to the higher questions of the school. The book-keeping, repairs, purchases, dormitories, the correspondence, and a thousand other minor but important things which principals of the normal school often have to do themselves could be done quite as well, under their supervision, by men and women whose services could be secured at a cost not exceeding one-fourth the salary usually paid the principals.

THE CIVILIZED MAN: THE ESSENTIALS OF HIS MAKING

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So long as the human infant begins life utterly helpless and highly plastic; so long as man is born to trouble as the sparks fly upward; so long as the forces of growth, development, and evolution play upon organic life; so long will the archaic question, "what is a civilized man?" be raised, calling for a new answer, a new interpretation and new agencies for his making. The term civilization, like that of education, refuses to be expressed, in permanent formula. Like education, too, it is a variable function of an indeterminate quality—life. The resultants of the forces of life express themselves in growth, decay, progress, arrest, evolution, devolution. These resultants are the marching orders of mankind, they are the modes of human experiences and they are themselves variables producing variable products, one of which is civilization. This dynamic conception of civilization based on biological grounds squares with that reached through a study of written history. The civilized product among the Homeric Greeks was a "speaker of words and a doer of deeds." God-fearing, law-abiding, patriotic, brave. During the periods of Pericles and Aristotle the civilized man must be of noble birth, must have been carefully educated in the culture material of his time and conversant, if not even skilled, in the wily ways of statescraft. In Sparta loyalty to country—not home—physical bravery, endurance, and self control, were the essentials of a citizen, and education in letters, science and morals were ignored, if not actually contemned. The ideal Roman citizen before the advent of the empire was a man of deep religious instincts, of devoted paternal feelings, and of intense public spirit, a man born to conquer and to rule. Without multiplying instances, suffice it to say, that the conception of a civilized man is relative and conventional, varying with the period of history, the class of society and of the country.

The essential elements embodied in a relative conception may be more explicitly set forth by noting the relations that subsist between the different so called grades of human culture on the one hand, and the forces of nature and human institutions on the other. Savagery is predicated of those people who simply learn to use

things but rarely forces. They manufacture their implements with their hands only, of the use of metals and fire they know nothing, of human institutions they are ignorant, save those of the family and tribe, the principles of division of labor and mutual cooperation are foreign to their natures, cooking and home-making are unknown arts. Their affections rarely extend beyond their own families or tribes. "To them kin and friend, non-kin and enemy, are synonymous terms."

When the savage invented the art of cooking or pre-digestion, and made the winds and the waters drive his crude machinery and carry his freight, when he discovered the principles of division of labor and mutual cooperation, and applied them in satisfying his increasing wants, and when his affections embraced all the families of the clan, and extended to all the individuals of a similar trade, profession, or caste, he became a barbarian. Objects and forces that were once deified and worshipped are now used in ministering to his wants and comforts. His human relations are widened, the blood tie is weakened, he feels that he is a part of and owes allegiance to his caste, to his profession or trades union, to his temporal and spiritual rulers.

The boundary line between savagery and barbarism can never be definitely run owing to their shading imperceptibly into each other. The same difficulty exists in mapping out the bounding lines between barbarous and civilized conditions. Nevertheless, as dim and broken as these lines appear, perhaps it is not too much to say that the chief differences between savagery and barbarism are material in kind, while those between barbarism and civilization are spiritual in kind. The civilized man has fallen heir to the inventions and discoveries of his simpler ancestors, this material inheritance saves his time and energy in supplying his physical and social wants and enables him to explore, discover, and elaborate the laws of the material and spiritual realms. An educator writes me: "The civilized man is the man who is not bound in a state of nature, but who is free in a state of the ideal, in his freedom he is useful to himself and others, happy in his work and in his leisure, nature is his servant, he is the voluntary servant of humanity and the embodiment of sweetness and light." His freedom and leisure in the state of the ideal consequent upon his material inheritance have fostered the reflective, reasoning and judicial spirit. This psychological power is for some the very "ear mark" of the civilized man. One says: "It occurs to me that the one essential trait

of the civilized man is his ability and willingness to govern his conduct by reason, it is reason that is the distinguishing characteristic of man: in so far as the individual man is subject to reason he can cooperate with his fellows. Humanism (humanization) has been brought about not so much by the study of the so-called humanities as it has through the work of men cooperating along lines dictated by reason." In proportion as reason rules it would appear that all mankind unite and the result is human culture. This is in line with the general agreement that the human race has developed from a predominantly sensorimotor type towards a predominantly associative and rational type.

Now, all this rings true, and who would gainsay it? Yet it impresses one as incomplete and as if there was much more to be added. Man is more than a reasoning animal, his instincts, affections, and volitions are factors to be reckoned with in every human equation. I dare say that man's appreciation of his fellows is more likely to be an irradiation of the paternal and self-preservative instincts than the result of reason. Our complex institutional life has its roots, its foundations, in these instincts and so let us add as a second "ear mark" the capacity to appreciate and understand and the willingness to participate and react on our complex institutional life. The spirit and consequent habit of co-operating with one's fellows insures more stable and purer social, civil, and religious institutions, it means higher development of industry, comfort, leisure—to some extent—and above all, peace.

To reason and mutual cooperation I would add the spirit expressed by the terms, humaneness, mercy or sympathy, as an essential element of a modern civilized man. Although this spirit is just beginning to bear fruit, it was conscious property even before the Christian era. Cicero realized it when he said: "Nature ordains that a man should wish the good of every man, whoever he may be, for the simple reason that he is a man." And likewise Seneca when he says: "We are members of one great body, nature made us relatives, when she begat us from the same materials, and for the same destiny." Menander observes: "I am a man: I hold nothing human alien to me." In modern terms, it is fraternity or the universal brotherhood of man. The great Teacher sets forth the principle in matchless form and power, in the parable of the Good Samaritan. When he said to the tempting lawyers: "Go and do thou likewise," he set humanity a lesson that it is just beginning to perform. The spirit does not operate in the

stock exchange, on the board of trade, or in the market house. It keeps no books, does not know the meaning of profit and loss, nor the use of scales, weights, and measures. It knows no class, caste, race, or worldly distinctions. It evaluates men not by what they know nor by what they do, but by what they are. It sees and knows the essence but is blind to the form. It is bearing fruit now by uplifting, purifying and enriching the life of the lowest, neediest, and remotest of men. It is extending ethical rights and ethical interests to the unfortunate in every land. May it not only become the dominant trait but the ideal of the American people!

There are of course other essential traits of the civilized man. The three indicated, however, *reason*, *mutual cooperation*, and *humaneness or mercy*, must suffice our present purpose. But now comes the "tug of war," what are the essentials to his making? Surely the present force of formal education in the United States is a mighty engine making for truth and righteousness. Add to these the forces of the American home, the Church, and the Press, and we may lay the "flattering unction to our souls" that after all we are spreading quite a thick civilized crust over our barbarous selves. If the matter pertained to the light operative affairs of life, no harm could come from such self flattery, teachers with pardonable pride might consider themselves the cleverest of engineers, running the mightiest engine of modern times; but our question belongs to that group of problems reckoned the most complex and deepest of life. The race has been working on this question consciously for at least two thousand years and that small fraction of it that began business in the seventeenth century on the eastern shores of the United States has been working at it with renewed zeal and on full time.

The results doubtless justify gratification, but not self-satisfaction, and that, too, for very positive reasons. I can only hint at a few in this connection. One of the most evident reasons for his satisfaction is the epidemics of savagery and lawlessness that have occurred with increasing frequency within the past decade and furthermore the seemingly slight shock created by these horrors on our society at large.

The second cause for dissatisfaction is the increased nervousness and restlessness in our national life, evidenced on every hand. It is seen in the large birth rates of feeble minded and idiots, in the large percentage of neurotic diseases in our insane asylums, in the premature ageing of our young people, in the extreme rest-

lessness and proneness to worry among the educated and well to do classes, in the highly unstable and hysterical conditions common to many sections of our land and in the unquenchable thirsting for the sensational.

The third cause is the ethical product of the American schools. I do not refer to the prevalence of gambling in some sections, petty thieving in low places, and wholesale robbery, and embezzling in high places, nor to intemperance and laxness in truth-telling everywhere. On the whole, we are quite respectable with reference to these matters, and faithful in the observance of approved customs and conventionalities. My charge is against the sort of ideals, purposes, and aims entertained by our scholastic products. The larger part of our pupils leave school with no higher aim than to outstrip their neighbors and not to help them. The efficiency of a state system of public schools is now estimated by the earning capacity of her citizens. That system which prepares its students to compete most successfully in the great game of life is reckoned the highest in the list. The poor man's son is continually prodded with the doctrine that skill and talent are potential wealth, and that through them he may become the captain of large industries and thereby even up matters with the rich man's son. The chief ambition, it appears, of the country lad is to quit the farm and command an indoor job. Studies that will sharpen the child's wits, that will readily fit him into one of the niches of the industrial or commercial world, are at a premium, while those that broaden the sympathies, that make us merciful and humane and cultivate the æsthetic, ethical, and religious sides of human nature are at a discount. The great mass of our citizens are given the mere tools of knowledge, not knowledge itself.

Many of our Southern states are incorporating industrial training into their school systems, and rightly too; but it is being justified largely on grounds of utility. It is argued that it will increase the earning capacities of the pupils, that it will enable us to develop our resources, and to compete on equal terms with other sections. Why not justify it on ethical, æsthetic and spiritual grounds. That will not appeal to legislation and the people. The South feels that she is too far behind in the industrial, commercial and developing activities. She is restless, impatient, provoked.

Carlyle says: "By our skill in mechanism, it has come to pass that in the management of external things we excel all other ages, while in whatever respect the pure moral nature in true dig-

nity of soul and character, we are perhaps inferior to most civilized ages"—it is no longer a worship of the beautiful and good, but a calculation of the profitable. The philosopher Been observes: "We seem to forget that if we should succeed in keeping everybody in a comfortable house with plenty to eat and disease almost eliminated, we should then just be on a level with the beavers and the ants."

Commercial and industrial interests not only dictate what we shall study but they control the shaping of our ideals. In our higher schools we find an inordinate, godless worship of scholarship, worship to gratify ambition, to secure prestige, and win fame. It would seem that we are bent on over cephalizing our nervous system, that we have gone intellect mad, that we bow in worship to the golden calf of ephemeral perishable learning, and deny the living God of mercy, love, and righteousness. We shall not be equal to our task if we simply focus attention on training and developing pupils into reasoning, cooperating humane citizens. Evil forces must be overcome, the numerous vents made in our civilized crust by the upheavels of savagery must be forever sealed; the excessive neurotic and hysterical tendencies of our people must be checked; our utilitarian and materialistic tendencies must be supplanted by altruistic, æsthetic, and religious ideals. In short, our work must be both *developmental* and *corrective*.

Here again is just cause for dissatisfaction, sympathetic criticism, and conservative suggestions. Our school systems too often arrest development instead of promoting it, and aggravate abnormalities instead of correcting them. I make bold to say that this is due to our ignorance of the laws of growth and development in the human infant and the consequent misuse of culture material. The several stages of human development have just begun to receive scientific investigation, their bounding lines established and their complex characteristics discovered and described. The time is ripe to begin to make a readjustment of culture material to the sequence of the stages of development. If the educator is to be a positive aggressive and constructive agent in the work of civilization, he must know the significance of the helplessness and plasticity of child life, of the prolonged growth period, he must know of the child's infinite capacity for growth and adaptation, he must know of the child's vast scientific, literary, æsthetic, and institutional inheritance. At present our chief interests center about the child's scientific and literary inheritance, it is believed that these

two values are absolutely essential in life's struggle, that they, above all things will enable the individual to survive in a grab-game world. We study and scheme and plan that the child from five to ten may take and own for evermore the three R's. We do this in obedience to tradition and a commercial ideal, to the dictates of a misguided public opinion and to a one-eyed interpretation of the philosophy of evolution. We are doing these things not only as an economic waste, but to a positive injury of the child, and furthermore, we are withholding from him that portion of his inheritance so essential to the making of a civilized man. We are denying him his physical, his æsthetic, and his institutional inheritance. By the latter I mean his civil, social, moral, and religious values.

We are continually ringing the changes on the proposition that the child must be educated mentally, morally, and physically; in actual practice we do attempt in a heroic fashion, with gloves off to train him mentally. Moral training is at a low water mark at present. There seems to be no consensus of opinion among educators, much less an effort, as to desirable methods, attainable ends, and appropriate subject matter for moral instruction. We note here and there spasmodic efforts and fragments of subject matter in utter confusion. The fact is, moral training has been left too long in the hands of dogmatic theorists, theologians, and special Providence. Physical training fares no better, our schools not only fail to give adequate physical training, but they aggravate minor abnormal tendencies into real diseases: witness the increase of myopia, and the be-spectacled children in our schools—in some cases as high as sixty per cent, also chorea, spinal curvature, chest deformities, school headaches, and stuttering. The reports of the surgeon general of the United States army show that our college trained athletes succumb more readily to gun shots and army diseases than youths without such training. The question has been asked: "What shall it profit a child to gain the world of knowledge and lose his own health?" The alliance between sickness and sin, weakness and wickedness, is more formidable than we sometimes think, and furthermore, the relation between vitality and virtue, health and honesty, are more direct than the most of us are willing to admit.

There are at present two methods used in judging the efficiency of our public school system. One looks at the mental habits and health of the pupil, their attitude towards school work,

towards the teacher, and at their power to do, rather than at what they know. This may be termed the hygienic method. The second method may be termed the scholastic method. It regards scholastic attainments as a measure of the efficiency of a school; it enquires into the number of pages read, of examinations passed, of weekly recitations, of compositions and theses written, red-inked and rewritten, of the number of courses necessary to a degree, and of diplomas received.

Scholasticism calls for specimens of work. Hygiene calls for healthy mind and body. One looks at results, the other looks at the capacity for producing results. Public opinion unwittingly emphasizes the scholastic product. She asks to see the scholastic product when she inspects our schools. "This converts the teacher into a mere showman, a prize exhibitor;" our best energies are spent in producing an acceptable scholastic product, rather than fostering the processes of growth and development and converting them into efficient power.

To a vast majority of teachers the problems of school hygiene deal only with school houses. As a matter of fact the hygienic ideal is solicitous of all the vital interests of the child. It would go to the home and observe the quality of the food and the manner of its cooking. Cooking is pre-digestion. It economizes vital energy, which energy may be devoted to higher and nobler work. When the hands were freed from the onerous task of locomotion, and formed an alliance with the brain, the human mind made a marvelous leap forward, and an equal if not a greater advance was made when artificial heat supplanted natural heat in the work of digestion. The child nourished by well cooked food enters the school with an extra store of energy which may be expended on a higher plane. School hygiene inquires into the quantity and quality of the child's sleep, the amount of home tasks, the fatiguing power of the different school subjects, and arranges the daily programme in the light of that knowledge. It is always apprehensive of arrested development, as well as hot house products. It deprecates coddling and fussing over children, and advocates self-control and freedom from worry. Worry is the arch enemy of self control, besides its emotional coloring it has two well marked mental characteristics; first, confusion of association processes, and second, automatic repetition. These two aspects of worry produce what we term psychologically a distracting idea, which by automatic repetition causes not only fatigue but makes against

mental unity and therefore self control. Bad correlation of subjects in the daily programme, hasty teaching, and many subjects confuse the child, hinder rather than foster self control—a very essential trait to a civilized man. A man of self control is poor mob material, the demagogue finds him troublesome to manipulate. Again, school hygiene teaches that the modern school room with its conventionalities, surrounds the child from five to ten with many artificial and abnormal conditions. The scholastic treatment of a child at these ages flies right in the teeth of some of the most fundamental facts of physiology, neurology, and psychogenesis. Let us attend to some of these facts. Even though we do not see their full import now, they may perhaps lessen our dogmatism, disturb our cocksureness and make us more teachable.

The brain acquires practically the last third of its weight during this period. This growth it appears consists in the development of the associational and rational centres. This does not imply that they are functionally mature for several very good reasons. First, children who acquire a language before six, but fail to use it after that age—the language being supplanted by another—are not able to use or understand it in after life; on the other hand, a language learned after eight, although rarely used never fades entirely from memory. Second, the blind do not have visual dreams if they become blind before five or six. Third, coordination is very imperfect, evidenced by extreme restlessness and non-precision of movements on both time and space. Fourth, children below five years of age under test conditions can not sit still longer than thirty seconds, and children under ten can not sit still longer than one and a half minutes. Ask the child to sit still and he will in attempting the task clench his hands, set his teeth, check his breath, all of which is an expression of his judgment that sitting still is a hard thing to do. In short, the ordinary child can not sit still *voluntarily*. Fifth, most children under nine can not perceive relations, that is, can not reason in abstract terms. Lloyd Morgan says, "Ask a boy of five or six to describe to you what he had performed in some simple and familiar operation, he will probably want to show you how it is done, but if you meet him with a request to be told, not shown, how it is done, you will probably soon see how puzzled he is, he can not describe it except in terms of relationships, which he has only *sensed* and not yet *perceived*."

The inference from all this is that the higher association and

control centers of the cortex are not functional at this period. A number of important changes occurs at about the ages of seven or eight that have great interest for teachers. One to be specially noted is the slow increase of heart as compared with body growth. The heart for several months or even for a year or more is too small and feeble for the body. It is like placing the work for a ten power engine upon an eight power engine. The physiological results of this disproportionate growth are impoverished blood, poorly nourished tissues, shortness of breath, lack of endurance, lassitude, nervousness, visual disorders, and throat troubles.

Doubtless the scholastics of our schools will say with Mr. Toots, that these facts are of no consequence, and will add that man is a sedentary, reading, writing, thinking, reasoning being, possessing the power of voluntary attention, and will add with Benjamin Franklin, "What is the use of a child if it be not to become a man?" Accordingly they try to enforce the child to sit still, make him read and write and think and reason, and compel him to give attention. Their pabulum in our country schools and in the vast majority of city schools is the three R's. "The child of six or eight is given a book or pen and put into a closely fitting seat and left to give attention to his work. This is precisely as if the mother should say to the infant, at the beginning of the creeping period, 'You are a man, not a brute, men go upright, not on all fours, you must walk, not creep'." Their tasks call for motor specializations of the highest order, they appeal at once to the highest and most delicate motions of the human body, viz.: those of the hand in writing, and of the voice and eye in reading. In doing this I repeat that we are not only committing an economic waste, but we are hindering the child from possessing his physical inheritance.

The hygienic ideal says that the child is the promise of the man, and agrees with Schleiermacher who observes: "Being a child must not hinder becoming a man, becoming a man must not hinder being a child." To realize a complete man, there must be a full and complete childhood; the best possible manhood is conditioned on the best possible childhood. Our schools would be more efficient in bringing this about if they would lessen their anxiety about the child's literary inheritance. "There is too much worship of the reading book, spelling book, copy book, and dictionary not rightfully due them." I am persuaded that the leading educators of today would rejoice to see nature study, morals, history, oral language, singing, physical training and play substituted

for the reading book, copy book, and spelling book. The period from nine to thirteen or fourteen is the time for these formal studies. The child at these ages is well prepared physically and mentally to tackle them. During this period they can be mastered better, and at a much less expenditure of time and energy and above all the child's physical inheritance will be conveyed to him intact.

A second essential element in the making of a civilized man is his æsthetic inheritance. "That feeling," says President Butler, "for the beautiful, the picturesque, and the sublime, that has constituted so great a part of human life, that constitutes so much of human pleasure, and accentuates so much of human pain and suffering, which the ancient Greeks understood and used, and which through a false and narrowing philosophy was thrust out of life and education for centuries, because it was supposed to antagonize the spiritual and religious life." There is much cause for gratification at its coming back to occupy its appropriate place in life. We do not apply the word culture to a man or woman who has no æsthetic sense, no feeling for the beautiful, no appreciation of the sublime. There are good psychological grounds for thinking such a nature abnormal. Neither is one needfully civilized who is devoid of these qualities. The capacity to admire, appreciate, and find satisfaction in the beautiful and sublime works of nature and art is the best possible safeguard against the spirit of the iconoclast, ruthlessness, brigandage, and hoodlumism, for we do not destroy that which we love, admire, and respect. It seems too that this capacity is more equally distributed than those which enable us to own and use our scientific and literary inheritance. It is found alike in the breast of the humblest laborer, the dullest peasant, as well as in the hearts of the most gifted. It is much easier to awaken in the heart of the youth admiration and wonder about the works of nature than it is to train him to read as the geologists the great stone book of nature. He will love the brooks, the forest, the very rocks of his mountain home, although he may know little or nothing of the mighty forces that have made them. The teacher can cultivate this civilizing quality at least through three agencies. First Froebel and better still Karl Gross, have shown how it may be done through play, second, in the school room by means of instruction, in color, in form, in artistic expression, including, of course, music, and third, by beautifying the school-home both inside and out. These several means for training the æsthetic sense

are calling for wider and more liberal usage. I shall merely hint at what might be done, even in the matter of beautifying the outside of the school-house. The school at its best is only a substitute for the home. The exteriors, the approaches to a country or village school should resemble as far as the principle of hygiene will permit those to a well ordered comfortable country or village home. If this principle is correct, it follows that school grounds should not be too publicly exposed, that they should be enclosed, that there should be a generous amount of yard space, both for ornamental and play purposes. Trees, shrubs, flowers, and grass, should be the features of the ornamental portion. To Southern schools, a large home-like veranda is desirable, the body of the house should be painted like dwelling houses and not like stables and barns, particularly not red. Until these things are done, it is utterly absurd to expect the child to love and respect the school. We expect the modern civilized man to respect and if need be to defend at least four institutions, namely, the home, the school, the Church, and the State. Let us make the school worthy of his affection and admiration, and the respect will naturally follow.

These last thoughts introduce us to the child's wonderful institutional inheritance, "Most wonderful of all, because it brings us in immediate contact with the human race itself." One educator writes me, "That the civilized man is the socialized man, and the progress of civilization is made as man is more completely socialized." Professor Dewey regards the whole of education as a social process. Dr. Harris believes that education gives the individual the wisdom derived from the experience of the race. These lessons of experience are of two sorts, first, the lessons of experience in the conquest of nature, and second, the more important lesson is derived from the experience of human nature, the manner and customs of men, the motives which govern human action and especially the evolution of human institutions, their combinations into social wholes.

These several views represent the socialistic ideals in education, as opposed to the individualistic. Stated in its extreme form, it says, "The individual is made for society, and not society for the individual." This paper can not discuss the implied antithesis. I merely hint at it to emphasize the underlying unity as worked out and put into practical operation by American genius. This unity or middle ground conception, "regards each of us as a unit, but still as a part of a larger unit, which regards each of us as entitled

to liberty but in subordination to law," which law is an expression of the collective mind. This conception of liberty under law allows a field for every human activity to develop and enrich itself without pulling down its fellow, while all may cooperate for a common end. I maintain that one of the highest and most vital functions of the public schools is the driving home of that conception. "Unless the child understands that while he is an individual he is also a member of the body politic, of an institutional life in which he must give and take, defer and obey, adjust and correlate, and that without all this there can be no civilization and no progress," then we are thrown back into a state of anarchy, communism, and mob law. The solution of this problem is the supreme test of the American schools, because the perpetuation of our institutions depends upon it. Here, as elsewhere, training and instruction, to be effective, must be adapted to the sequence of the stages of development in the child. Let us attend briefly to one stage, that of adolescence. We are considerably handicapped here by our ignorance of this period. Our accurate knowledge appears to be inversely as its importance, our tact and skill in dealing with the pupils inversely as the seriousness of the problems incident to the period, and it would seem sometimes that our sympathy is inversely as the yearning for it. The years of adolescence usually range from the thirteenth to the twentieth—it is the high school period. These years mark the time from childhood to youth and manhood; the period during which the child learns to put away childish things and to appreciate the interests and purposes of men, to find his place in the social whole, and to realize the interdependence of public and private interests. My studies on the "psychology of ownership" show that most children are interested in material and inanimate things and that at adolescence the affections and interests are transferred to those of the animate, social and spiritual world. For the adolescent the friendship, the good opinion, the good will, the love, the confidence of and for others constitute the world of values, for these things individual life itself is not too dear a sacrifice. The adolescent must love and be loved, must have friends and associates. Childhood wants objects satisfying the senses, and the instinct to have; adolescence wants friends and society to whom it may offer sacrifice. It is the beginning of the operation of that universal principle which offers up the best that is in the individual as well as his most valued belongings to the welfare of the species. The conduct of child-

hood is regulated by direct authority, precepts, examples, and habit, that of adolescence by principle, reason, and honor. He thinks much about freedom, liberty, and the rights of man. These are mere samples of the wealth of phenomena that occur during this nascent period of life. What is their import, if any? Is it not that adolescence is the time of all times for transferring to the individual his institutional inheritance? The principles and methods of municipal, state and national government must be explained and made familiar to the pupil. He must also receive instructions that will help him to understand the complex relations of our modern industrial system. "We may justly expect a modern school to do its share in arousing interest in and an insight into our institutional life—our municipal, state, political, industrial, commercial, and educational affairs—we justly ask that history, civics, economics, the social studies, shall receive much fuller recognition than has been accorded to them hitherto." And furthermore, that they shall be presented historically and objectively, rather than theoretically and speculatively.

DISCUSSION

T. J. WOOFER, GEORGIA NORMAL SCHOOL

I have listened to Dr. Kline's admirable thesis with increasing interest throughout, and I am in full sympathy with its doctrines both as to our educational shortcomings and the remedies. It struck a popular chord of my belief in the claim that more attention should be given the physical man. Do you call that education which emaciates the body, makes muscles weak and flabby, flattens the chest, enfeebles the digestion, "bespectacles" the eyes, tugs at the whole nervous system? Such is the work of hundreds of our schools and colleges all over this land. Such is not true education but stupendous blunder—is contrary to nature. The end should be not intellectual power only, but a nerve and muscle power behind the will to sustain in the struggle for daily bread and for righteousness. A duty to children, if not the first duty, is to make them splendid animals. Certainly God made their animal nature the basis of the intellectual and moral. Physiological psychology has made clear that we can not do the perfect work of perception, memory, thought, emotion, or will without a perfect nervous system. It is wrong to keep little children under nine confined longer than two or three hours daily. So I would champion the suggestions of Dr. Kline, and would add this: *More instruction in the principles of right living.* We have heard that man is the animal that cooks and that "civilized man can not live without cooks." Yet in hundreds of homes in this southland there is nothing in heaven above or in earth beneath known about scientific cooking or living. We need to put more of such knowledge in the home.

The claim that more attention should be given to genetic psychology is important. Right at the outset we need to determine such problems as, Is the child only a small man or is there a peculiar child world? What are the powers, possibilities, destiny, of the child? What are the changes from year to year approaching manhood's estate? These are fundamental and vital. Then comes, What are we trying to do with the child? What shall the finished product be? Here we are at great variance. The test of the school and college is, What do you know? The test of the world is, What can you do? And the final test of the Great Judge will be, What are you? You may say that we all agree that the chief aim of education is character building; I maintain that there is scarcely a school in this country that lives up to that ideal, and that in practice the knowledge aim is still uppermost.

There is much talk about making education practical, and I believe in practical education, but surely "life is more than meat and the body more than raiment." "What are the material luxuries of life, if life itself is narrow, sordid, mean?" We are pitched on too low a plane. The world-view we fail to get. Children should be led to see their relation to the world and all therein, to identify themselves as a part of a great whole, of a wonderful plan. Such identification is inspiring, and missing it makes life barren, dreary, and burdensome to most people. Still further, children should be led to know their kinship with God, the identification of the "I am," just as fully as did he who said "I am that 'I am.'" Not only our institutional inheritances but also our divine inheritance should be given. "Seek ye first the kingdom within you," is imperative, and afterward the material comforts will take care of themselves. Our government has set a peculiar example. It has set up a department of agriculture but not a department of education. This goes to say that the culture of plants and animals is of more importance than the culture of men. But really, the culture of plants and animals is but means to the end, and the main business of life is the culture of men. Rousseau presents this view. In his *Emile* he says: "Before he (*Emile*) can think of adopting a vocation, nature calls upon him to be a man." "On leaving my hands, he will not, I admit, be a magistrate, a soldier, or a priest; first of all he will be a man."

Here possibly we should differentiate merely civilized from humanistic. Davidson, in his *History of Education*, a profound and scholarly work, grades mankind into four grades of culture, savagery, barbarism, civilization, and humanism, and he claims that we are now passing into humanism. He thus pictures civilization. "People of the civic grade of culture draw a sharp distinction between themselves and their neighbors with *implied superiority on their own side*. Each is held together by its own gods, laws, customs, languages, literature, memories, *and looks down on all others*. The Jew places himself above the Gentile, the Greek above the Barbarian, and so on. Even when the peoples of different races and tongues are united under a common government, there is always one ruling race which holds the others in subjection and contempt. There is here no feeling or recognition of a common, all embracing humanity." How true the above when applied today to us and our opinion of Chinese, Japanese, Spaniards, and the rest of the world, and also to their opinion of us. Minister Wu says that in many things we are worse than his people of the "Hill Country,"

and learned Japanese say our religion is a bundle of superstitions! Then in our own life this attitude towards others is marked. I believe it was Editor Richardson, of the Atlanta Journal, who characterized a modern city as a place where a number of people squat on a small patch of ground and then diligently watch for opportunities to do one another. The civilized version of the golden rule is, "Do others or they'll do you." You all know David Harum's version of the same. Then, do we wish to make merely the civilized man or a better product? We have placed too great stress on the intellect. Athenian Greece has shown us what a wonderful type may be produced by placing the emphasis on the æsthetic. We should place greater stress on the altruistic and the moral emotions, for out of these, out of the heart are the issues of life. We must stress the brotherhood of man. Love is the greatest law.

Then, in conclusion, let me add to Dr. Kline's suggestions this one; *we should extend the benefits of education.* We educate the leisure class, but the great class of breadwinners whose souls are starving because of no leisure, we fail to reach. These are left out in the cold, condemned to a life of toil in a narrow, uninteresting world, mere tools of unscrupulous capitalists and demagogues. This is a growing problem in the South as factories multiply. For the sake of these people, for humanity's sake, we must extend the benefits and blessings of education. We must not be content to produce a few scattering cases of the ideal man, but must aim at the ideal state of society at large. The ideal conditions have been fully set forth by highest authority and these are quite different from our civilization. The ideal man will show forth the fruits of the spirit, love, joy, peace, goodness, temperance—and he who is led by these is free indeed, is the civilized human.

The ideal state of society will be attained when the earth has been subdued and man's dominion is complete; when the wolf shall dwell with the lamb, the little child shall play about the hole of the asp; when swords shall be beaten into plowshares, spears into pruning hooks, love shall reign supreme, and the earth shall be full of the knowledge of the Lord as the water covereth the sea.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE TRAINING SCHOOL IN NORMAL WORK

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The work of the training school being a part of the work of the normal school, any discussion of the first must be based on a statement of those lines of work in the more comprehensive organization in which the smaller affords material or peculiar aid. "The proper function of the normal school" has been stated by one well

fitted to formulate it, to be "to take men and women otherwise fitted by birth and general education and give them the special instruction and training necessary to make them teachers."

With some branches of this "instruction and training," the training school has little to do—with others its connection is intimate if not vital. We shall mention only the latter. And these, we think, can be brought more clearly to mind by an illustration. It has been a matter of wonder that there are so few old teachers, the crowds of young ones nearly all seem to disappear through the first spans of Mirza's bridge, leaving very, very few to pick their way over the last few arches. It is a sad fact but a true one that there are few old men and women in active service in the harness they have worn all their lives. This fact makes us notice more closely the work and conditions of those who seem exceptions to a rule.

An examination of those qualifications that have brought success would show these among others. 1st. The ability to view the subjects taught in school from a pedagogical standpoint. This is an entirely different point of view from that of the pupil pure and simple. The pupil sees in each branch a line of thought which he must follow. If there are phases, he must discover and settle their relations. The teacher must go further: He must find a reason for each rule, a basis for each statement: must see the subject as a whole: must see clearly the end and aim of each study, and the relation of each to all others in a course. When our old friend began to teach nothing of this sort had ever occurred to him; many of the impressions on which he has acted now for years came to him when he stood, book in hand, puzzled perhaps, before his class. It is safe to say that no one takes this pedagogical view of the subjects in a curriculum before he begins at least to prepare to teach. When this view is taken it puts an end to false methods of study; and so long as false methods of study are practiced the view is never enjoyed.

The old teacher too has learned the workings of the child's mind. The child-mind differs from a man's mind but he has learned it, learned its ways, its powers, its limitations; how it is nourished and how it grows. He learned it by coming into contact with it day after day for generation after generation of school children, and he knows and all teachers know he could get it in no other way. Comparative statistics and the results of innumerable observations may give him some indefinite limits within which he

must gain his experience; but the knowledge on which he must base his actions can come from personal contact alone.

He has found too that with experience he has gained increased ability in presenting subjects to his classes; his methods are better, he says. He admits that he learned by an expensive process; he ruined a generation of spellers and did not know he was on the wrong track until he saw the fruits of his labors in the efforts of his former pupils, now men and women: and he trained generation after generation to read by systems summed up in dogmatic statements, each excluding all others, only to find at the end that, as in all things earthy, qualities good and bad lie side by side.

He has little trouble now with discipline. When young he thought he would soon turn gray from trials of this kind: now his eye, though it beams so kindly always, can detect the signs of threatening disorder that would escape the attention of a novice, and the tact born of experienced sympathy can prevent any annoyance from conditions that would once have brought a storm on him unprepared.

Lastly, he has learned men. Some of their qualities can be learned from history, some from literature; but we must meet these qualities in the concrete before we can become intimately acquainted with them. No book will suffice; actual contact is a necessity: and boys and girls are little men and women.

Memory brings to such an one many things that sadden and many that make glad. Along his pathway there are failures that he thinks now should have been successes; while here and there are to be seen the results of earnest, faithful, successful effort. He is a little rusty in the classics now, and has lost some of the quickness of youth, but he can deal almost automatically with conditions that once would have forced an agony of thought. If asked to what his efficiency is due, he would say it is the result of experience.

Many of the results of this experience the normal school proposes to give. This education and training, which we have mentioned before, and much of which the old teacher has gotten while actually teaching, may be summed up in Page's expression, the theory and practice of teaching. To prepare for teaching there must be some knowledge of theory: and there must be some practice: full knowledge of the one and any knowledge of the other can be secured as far as the normal school is concerned only through the agency of the training school.

Let us study the conditions of a pupil just entering the normal school. He has never thought of teaching a lesson: in general terms, he has thought of teaching, but that is a very different matter from teaching some specific thing: nor will he be able in one of a thousand cases to realize what is before him until he attempts to do the thing itself. It is not so difficult a matter to master any science as far as this means to learn the rules as they have been formulated. This is purely academic work and ordinary ability and ordinary spirit and enthusiasm suffice to master it. The trouble comes in applying the rules to concrete cases. The difference between a knowledge of an art considered as a body of rules, and successful application of these rules is illustrated by the fact that successful generals have been almost unanimously pronounced by theorists as ignorant of military science.

Let us take up these matters in detail. The pupil teacher is supposed to have a sufficient knowledge of the subject matter of any study he is to teach. Will it be possible to arrange properly this subject matter for presentation to a class when all the time it is known by all concerned that it is not to be presented to a class, but is to end in oral statement of what has been done, or in a pigeon hole or a waste basket? Some good can be done by this purely abstract preparation of lessons: full results for the teacher can only be had from actual work. When the principles from which we derive our methods of teaching are presented, to what extent will they be apprehended? If it is the motor consequences of an impression that fix it in the mind, the more definite and more pronounced these consequences are the more firmly the impression will be fixed. Suppose then that the learning of theory is desired and that practical application of rules is not our object; this theory would be best fixed in the mind by having the pupil teacher elaborate his own methods therefrom, and develop his own illustrations of principles taught. When we consider the practice of teaching, the discipline of a school, and all that is included under school management, the study of children and the daily problems of school life, a moment of thought is sufficient to show the great need of actual teaching in training persons to teach. It is admitted that teaching is an art; and skill in arts must be acquired by intelligent practice. To attempt to do so in any other way is fairly described as trying to learn to swim without water. We wish briefly to consider some objections to the work of pupil teachers

and then offer some suggestions as to how this work should be done.

The objections to the training school are of a two-fold nature. 1st. That conditions obtaining in such a school are so unlike those which will confront the full fledged teacher that the experience will be of little benefit: 2nd. That, phrase it as you will, in a training school the children take the place of plants in botanical study, and, of animals of low degree in the biological laboratory.

To these objections we reply that those who organize the training school can so arrange its work that existing conditions in other schools are duplicated: or it can be arranged in a way that is clearly seen to be artificial. Those who are in authority are responsible. When placed in charge of a class in a properly organized school the young teacher has an opportunity to deduce methods from principles. The results of his efforts react on him and correct or confirm his judgments while suggesting entirely new or alternative lines of work. He has the opportunity of controlling a class and of finding out whether he has mistaken his calling. He can study the types of mind before him, and in the small class assigned to him he will, more than likely, find a type of every class of normal children of that grade. He can find there the conditions of work that will confront him later in life with the one exception—that he is not entirely on his own responsibility. But is it not rare that any untrained person is ever on his own responsibility? Is there not always some one near to afford aid: and to intervene in time to prevent serious consequences of error? Parents do so with their children in their first efforts in life. Students of law and students of medicine take their first steps under the watchful guidance of their preceptors. Why should this method of training, in vogue in general and in most professions, be forbidden to students of this profession alone?

Now as to the danger of harm to children. There is in the mind of almost every layman an almost invincible mistrust of the capacity of the young professional and it is very easy to play on this feeling by describing a condition which might exist in a training school—perhaps did exist at one time, perhaps does exist somewhere today: and which if necessary would condemn the plan which created it. We deny the necessity for the existence or continuance of these evils. We do not underestimate the value of

the children in these schools: their bodies, their minds, their souls are at stake; but we do insist that the harm that might result from frequent changes in the teaching force—with all its sequelae—and from the inexperience of the teacher—all these dangers are minimized in the organization and management of any training school which is subject to inspection by those competent to be intrusted with its supervision. The dangers are not hidden: they are known, and when dangers are known harmful consequences can generally be prevented. The presence of the critic teacher secures continuity of work under a comprehensive plan: no one act of the pupil teacher is likely to have serious result on mind or morals of children. It is better of course that no wrong should ever be done, but one error could scarcely be of so serious a nature as to bring condemnation on the system that made it possible: and many repetitions of an error of any kind are not to be expected if those in charge do their duty reasonably well. Lastly, it can not be denied that this experience must be gained by actual work. All the money, all the intellect and all the effort of a state can not make an experienced teacher of one who has never taught. The public at large is to derive the benefit which is to come from the work of the experienced teacher; and the public must pay the price. This price is not money, it is the patience that must be extended to the novice in his art, and the risk which is always assumed when material is put in the hand of an inexperienced professional.

Under what circumstances will this cost be least? There are only two sets of circumstances under which the experience can be gained. The one exists in a normal school where there is a training school organized by experienced teachers: where theory and its applications go with equal pace; where every mechanical aid to success has been provided; where a kindly friend suggests in moments of doubt, corrects the first step in error and gives worthy praise to each successful effort. The other is where the tyro stands alone in a school of his own; staggered with a sense of the responsibility suddenly felt; prepared for his work by a mass of theory which so far as he or any one else knows may be imperfectly assimilated, with every step hitherto untried, unconscious of his own powers, and limitations: and worst of all, as we insist, with no test of his work possible save that which comes when the result of defective training of the child is seen in the weak or vicious man. Under what circumstances is this precious mate-

rial of the public most endangered: where does the public pay most for the training of its experienced teachers?

Now as to the details of work. The first step to be taken in a normal school is to lead the pupil to consider the course of study from the pedagogical stand point. This can be done in several ways. A review of the subject to be taught is of great advantage. The pupil should understand the object of the review and should have his attention called to such points as are thought by the instructor to be worthy of notice. This study with this specific end in view will do much towards starting thought in pedagogic lines. Incidentally it will do something else. It will do more than anything else to give facility and skill in the art of study. Those who teach know that there is no obstacle to progress more serious than the lack of ability to comprehend the thought of an author. Developing in the intermediate grades it disturbs more and more until it may be safely said that weakness in this line nullifies more good intentions than any other influence at work after the pupil leaves the primary grades. To study with a view of teaching the subject matter studied does more to remove this difficulty than any other aid. This is by no means all training school work; some of it may be done in class, but the full extent of benefit from this source can not be enjoyed as long as the student is student only. He must teach in order to awaken the feelings and spirit of the teacher.

To test progress in this line of work, outlines of lessons should be prepared for inspection: these are no doubt of great advantage and this can be done without going into the training school. The pupil should next see in the training school fellow pupils of more advanced grade teach; he can then see more clearly the end desired and the adaptation of the means for securing the end. To limit all observation to the work of expert teachers we think is wrong. In such cases the young teacher is timid: hesitates about expressing any opinion and soon falls into the fault of forming none. The spirit of criticism has freest play amongst equals, and this spirit is necessary if observation is to produce much fruit. Nor should there be any such work at all unless there is to be full discussion of the report made by the pupil of his observation. To observe without subsequent discussion and criticism is very much like forming intentions without acting on them.

For successful management of any institution it is necessary that there should be some executive head, but it is hard to decide

where authority in this case should rest. It seems to us that ultimate authority must be vested in the president of the normal school. There should also be a principal who should report directly to the president and who should have about the same authority and duties as a superintendent of schools. The critic or supervising teacher is the one who comes into contact most intimately with the pupil teacher. It is a question as to how many of these there should be. We are not sure that it is necessary to have one for each grade or section: such an arrangement would of course be able to meet every contingency, but we doubt the necessity of such an ample provision. We do not think it is best for the critic teacher to be present always with the pupil teacher. Such constant supervision must cramp individuality. For some purposes supervision is necessary, but the arrangement of subject matter and method of presenting it can be discussed privately. When the critic teacher is sure of this ground some freedom ought to be allowed: a sense of responsibility will thus be developed and what may be termed class manners be cultivated.

In order that the pupil teacher may gain experience in class management and strength in discipline we think it necessary that she should often be alone with the class. The constant presence of the critic teacher suggests a doubt as to the capacity of the pupil teacher: then it is but natural that the children should see in the pupil teacher one who is on an intermediate plane between their own and that of the critic teacher. With this idea in their minds they are not likely to submit to any exercise of authority on the part of the pupil teacher. Such a condition hampers progress and should be relieved. In case this spirit shows itself strongly we should not hesitate to combat it by giving to the pupil teacher authority to punish, and in aggravated cases to insist on the exercise of the authority. This, of course, must be done with care, and no positive action taken without consultation with the critic teacher or principal. But not to afford protection would more than likely make the classes abnormal in behavior: and change the training school into a school of affliction for those whose benefit it was designed.

No exact limit can be set for the amount of teaching to be done by each normal pupil or the arrangement of such work; whether it shall all be done in a few grades: or whether the time spent in each shall be less, and experience gained in more. Some have fixed for the total one period per day for a year as the mini-

mum requirement. This is certainly little enough, though we can see how too much work of this kind can be exacted. The value of experience is not measured by the time passed in its acquisition nor by the number of times an act is repeated.

One who carefully chooses the means to accomplish his ends and intelligently observes the success or failure of each will learn more from a few recitations than will be gained from many by one who does what he has seen others do and sees only those features of his result which he has been told to observe. Then too in the management of a school we can classify pupils. Very few men and women in life deal with individuals: such detailed study is too exacting. We classify them and deal with classes. So in a school: we classify the pupils: we consider the types: and we deal then with the individual as one of a class. So much is this true that there is very little difference in the aggregate of behavior in any two schools. There may be abnormal cases which must be dealt with where they occur, and exceptional circumstances may produce remarkable conditions, good or bad: but ordinarily any class will present a type of almost every problem that will ever confront the teacher. In dealing with these each pupil teacher should study carefully the first case that presents itself: and should consult proper authority before acting: once a case has been dealt with no other similar one should require much consideration. The amount of work to be taken by each pupil must then be left to the judgment of some competent authority. No hard and fast rule can obtain. The trouble that is bound to ensue when individual needs are compared will be less than that which results from requiring all to do the same amount of work without regard to individual needs and ability. But while some are able to test methods and illustrate their ideas of methods in a short time, it must be remembered that time and practice alone can give to the pupil teacher skill, ease and a consciousness of power in class management. In the arrangement of this work we prefer a more extended experience in a few grades to the shorter time in all. Some time is lost for each teacher with every change and the longer acquaintance with the children enables the teacher to better adapt her work to the individual capacity. In short the work should tend to thoroughness more than to slighter general knowledge.

Every pupil teacher should prepare an outline of any lesson she is to teach. This should be very full as to subject matter and method: and in this matter the critic teacher should give great

aid. We doubt very much the efficiency of that plan that trusts to the spontaneous flow of thought on the spur of the moment even in the case of the experienced: we are sure it ought not to be allowed in the training school. This is an aid which rightly employed is of great value, but which may from neglect become a very perfunctory performance, and thus worse than useless. Constant thought on the one hand and constant supervision and criticism on the other hand make the work a potent agency for developing teaching capacity. These outlines of lessons should not be prepared day by day—by piece-meal as it were: but the whole should represent the elaboration of the general idea of the pupil as to the subject taught—and then the development of each phase of the subject; and finally the detailed arrangement of items and illustrations. Each stage of the work should be fully discussed before the next is entered on; and the outline of each recitation should be prepared, and discussed some days before it is presented.

A very important and unsettled question is who shall decide what methods of teaching shall be employed. One class insists that the instructor in methods shall settle this question: another, that each instructor shall exemplify the method to be employed in teaching his own branch. We are not sure that any plan can be devised that does not present such difficulties that the ultimate decision must be left to the good sense of the principal who is in immediate charge of the school.

Those who insist that preference be given to the ideas of the specialist surely come face to face with the fact that the specialist is always in danger of having his judgment warped, and of giving more and more of his attention to that feature of his branch that most attracts him. Those who seek guidance from a professor of methods must remember that he who attempts so many things is not apt to be as thorough as those who confine themselves to one subject. A professor of methods may claim, though, that he is a specialist and that in this peculiar field he can speak *ex cathedra*. On the other hand it must be said that if any pupil studies any subject under an instructor of marked power or attractiveness, the professor of methods will hardly be able to prevent that pupil from putting into effect in her classes the methods according to which she has been taught, and this will apply even to mannerisms. However, while there may be doubt as to which is the correct principle, there should be no doubt as to what is the correct practice. Those in authority should decide whose voice shall prevail and from this

decision there should be no dissent. All should cooperate in the line decided on.

In conclusion we wish to emphasize the need of certain qualities in those who have charge of a training school. The best of teachers, the most skillful of artists finds that his attention is to some extent divided when critics stand and watch him at his work. The pupil teacher must needs feel anxiety and distraction of thought when she knows that every mental and bodily movement is being noted by a critical eye. Under such a trial she needs the assurance that those who are to criticize have no feeling but kindly sympathy for her and the children under her care. And the critic teacher must remember that the efficiency of a teacher depends on no one quality only; the working capacity depends more on the determination to succeed and the willingness to exert the self control and the self denial which are necessary to attain success than on scholarship and what are called natural gifts.

These qualities are hard to weigh and yet a decision is necessary. Too often we fear those who are to decide on the qualifications of teachers attach too much importance to the good intentions of the applicant. There are thousands who are perfectly willing to "be good" if being good does not require them to "do good," but the latter is necessary. And when it is plain that the requisite determination and fidelity to aim are lacking, mercy to the children who are to be taught and justice to those who wish to teach alike require that the truth should be published and the incapable precluded from a long career of undetected incapacity.

In what we have said we know that we have touched lightly on important matter: we trust that those who bring to its consideration more preparation than we have can find something in what we have said to interest and to profit.

THE PLACE OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

W. K. TATE, PRINCIPAL MEMMINGER NORMAL SCHOOL,
CHARLESTON, S. C.

The state university should not and does not differ essentially from other universities in its constitution or its ideals. It is an institution for higher instruction and for the advancement of learn-

ing. Any discussion of the subject will apply in great measure to any other higher educational institution. The differences which exist arise from the official relation of the state university to the state common school system.

In the history of education the common school has come as a downward extension of the university. This result has been accomplished:

- 1 By supplying teachers for the secondary schools.
- 2 By furnishing as leaders of the people an intelligent citizenship willing to support the common schools.
- 3 By preparing men with the breadth of view and the grasp of detail, to plan, execute and supervise systems of public instruction.
- 4 By placing before ambitious youth an ideal of scholarship requiring high school preparation.

The historical position of the university as the mother of the common school, will remain the actual position of the state university. The welfare of the common school constitutes the chief reason for the existence of the higher institutions supported by the state. The university should take the initiative in the development of the common schools, and should be ever vigilant in furthering their interests. Our legislators will do well to remember that, in supporting the state colleges, they are making provision for the common schools of the next generation.

The common school system, once in favor, rapidly outgrew the university from which it originated. The university did not and could not prepare teachers in sufficient number to meet the demands of the secondary schools. It was recognized also that a special kind of preparation, not given by the university or the high school, was necessary to the greatest measure of success. To meet these demands normal schools were established requiring less academic training than was required by the university, and substituting therefor instruction more or less thorough and scientific in methods of teaching.

The last fifty years has witnessed an educational development along three lines:

- 1 An astonishing growth of the common school system;
- 2 The establishment of numerous normal schools; and
- 3 The tendency to intense specialization in the university.

During the first forty years of this period there was a grow

ing tendency to stress the normal preparation of the teacher. During the last ten years the reaction has followed, and the university, at least, makes the claim that the normal school alone has not given the culture and discipline necessary in leaders of education, and is beginning to insist on its old prerogatives.

One of our most popular and aggressive university presidents, in an address recently delivered to a convocation of his students, made the prediction that "the time is at hand when only doctors of philosophy will be accepted as teachers in colleges and none less than masters of art will find places in the high schools." After making due allowance for the western exaggeration of the president in question, there is unmistakable evidence that the university is assuming its old role in the preparation of teachers for colleges and high schools and in the training of supervisors for school systems.

As an educational training school the university owes it to the state that its chairs shall be filled with teachers as well as specialists. Every university should endeavor to secure at least one great teacher. The best course in pedagogy which can be offered is a year's contact with an inspired teacher.

It sometimes happens that the university simply hunts for the specialist. Our large universities are producing doctors of philosophy by the hundreds. Their authority in some fields of research is unquestioned. Their interest in this narrow specialty is unbounded. The young doctor obtains a position in one of our state colleges. He regards the classes which come before him as only a necessary part of the furniture in an institution, which gives him the means and facilities for carrying on his own research. He has not even heard of the educational movements in which his state is engaged. His name does not appear on the roll of any association of teachers. He does not attend their meetings because they have nothing to say about "gamma functions," or "the evolutionary differentiation of the Eohippus." His interest is centered on his microscopic field of research while the great march of humanity and civilization passes unnoted. Some of us have perhaps seen the biologist to whom the thought of man always suggested the query, "Of what organ in his evolution is the appendix vermiformis the rudimentary remnant."

The great teacher in the university is perhaps also a doctor of philosophy. He is also an authority in some field of research. He may even be interested in determining the number and distribution

of the hot and cold spots on a square centimeter of skin on his left wrist. But he recognizes that he is first a teacher of men, and then a professor of biology or mathematics. With President Low, he believes that "there is no such thing as a world of letters apart from the world of men." Scholars are never made except out of men who see humanity as a vision beckoning to them from behind their books. The scholar without the vision is a pedant. Mere contact with a live university professor who keeps abreast of his specialty, who is intensely interested in what he teaches, and who keeps before him this vision, remembering that education is not the result of a mechanical but of a spiritual process, will awaken the teaching spirit in those who receive his instruction.

The really great problems of the century cluster about the educational and social development of man. In these problems all culture should find a common basis of interest. Every state university should have a chair of sociology and education, filled by a great teacher whose courses are open to the university. If a year may be profitably spent in a biological laboratory, studying the development of the lower forms of life, would not a year given to the study of questions concerning the highest development of man, produce results equally profitable?

The university course in pedagogy should differ materially from the normal school course. Much of the work in the normal school has to do with the details of method. The work of the university should deal with the broad principles underlying education. It should aim at originality and not mere uniformity. It should produce leaders in educational movements, both in and out of the profession of teaching. It should give us men of initiative power. Too many hard and fast methods, whether normal or abnormal, make the orderly automatic superintendent, who presses the button without thinking, and expects automatic results from principals, teachers and pupils.

In the next place the state university should take upon itself the duty of raising and making uniform the standard of the secondary school. While a systematic promulgation of the entrance requirements will do much toward improving the high school standard, this is not sufficient. The high schools of the state giving requisite preparation should be affiliated with the university and their graduates received on certificates. This affiliation should not be haphazard, but should be granted only after the methods and instruction and the standing of the school, have been investi-

gated by an officer of the university, on an official visit. After having affiliated the high school it should be visited annually by a professor selected for this duty. This annual inspection of the course of study, methods and results will assure a vital connection between the secondary schools and the university. As a further bond of attachment the university should offer a scholarship to each of its accredited schools. Such a plan of affiliation makes the state university a part of the state school system. A few of our Southern state colleges are as yet only subsidized private institutions, which never think of the common schools except to complain of the miserably prepared students sent from them. The system suggested gives tone and stability to the high school, keeps before its students the question of higher education, and secures to the university much better preparation. The reflex influence on the university is not the least of the objects obtained. The visiting professor in particular, having touched the mother earth, goes back to his lecture room with renewed strength.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Meeting—Columbia High School, Friday, December 27, 2:30 P. M.

The Department of Industrial Education met in the Columbia High School building on Friday, December 27, at 2:30 p. m. The meeting was called to order by President D. B. Johnson, of Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.

The printed programme called for a paper on Technical Education by President Hall, of the Georgia School of Technology. President Hall being absent, the next paper called for was that of Superintendent E. C. Coker, of the Greenwood Public Schools, Greenwood, S. C., on "Industrial Education in the Public Schools."

There was discussion by Principal Joseph Blair, of Sparrow's Point, Maryland, Manual Training School; Miss E. M. Getz, of the Charleston City Schools; Prof. C. C. Thach, of Auburn, Ala., and Mr. Joseph Baldwin, of Charlotte, N. C.

The next address was by Prof. Albert Barnes, of Clemson College.

This paper was discussed by Prof. Robt. G. Thomas, of the South Carolina Military Academy, and Prof. C. C. Thach, of Auburn, Alabama.

It was decided not to hold the meeting called for in the programme for Saturday afternoon but to unite with the Department of Superintendence, where the topic of Manual Training was to be discussed at that time.

On motion of Prof. R. G. Thomas a committee was appointed to nominate officers for the department for the coming year. The committee reported the following nominations:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

President—C. C. Thach, Auburn, Ala.

Vice-President—Albert Barnes, Clemson College, S. C.

Secretary—Joseph Blair, Sparrow's Point, Md.

These officers were unanimously elected.

E. C. COKER, *Acting Secretary.*

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

E. C. COKER, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, GREENWOOD, S. C.

SUMMARY

The public school is an institution organized and supported by the state for the work of citizen-making. A man is an educated citizen only when

he is prepared to enter society as a worker; only when he knows how to use the energy of mind and body that nature has given him, in such a way as to benefit society. Ability to make his energy actively effective, to express himself—this is the mark of the educated man.

But the only means of expression is the body. Energy of mind becomes effective only through the medium of tongue or hand, and the great majority of men will always depend on the hand for their chief means of expression. Yet apart from writing, no manual expression is generally taught in the public schools.

There is a natural craving for this manual expression, and one cause of the failure of the school to secure a firm hold on the interest of its boys and girls is that it offers no satisfaction to this natural desire of children to use the hands in making things.

Education for the cloister must give place to education for active, every-day life.

This industrial training will have a simple beginning: for the boys, drawing, joinery, lathe-work and, later, carving, pattern-making and forge-work; for girls, drawing, modeling with clay, needle-work, carving.

The successful construction of attractive, real, tangible objects by means of manual skill is the object to be sought after.

In this matter of industrial education, the lead must be taken by town and city schools. They have a body of patrons more easily aroused to the importance of the work, and they can more easily afford the necessary cost of equipment and material.

THE KIND OF BOTANY FOR AN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL

F. L. STEVENS, NORTH CAROLINA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND
MECHANIC ARTS

I come before you to discuss the kind of botany suitable for an industrial school. I might make my theme broader and consider biology rather than botany, but that would lead to vagueness, owing to the extreme looseness with which the term is used, meaning botany, zoology, or general sanitation according as it is used by a botanist, a zoologist or a member of a board of health. I choose botany rather than zoology because it is taught in more schools, and because it is my conviction that botany is more suitable than zoology for first contact with nature; and as a means of inculcating the fundamental principles of physiology, struggle, adaptation and evolution, plants exhibit the attributes of life. Their mode of life renders them subject to easier control. Plant material is easier to obtain, and to preserve, and when presented gives a more representative knowledge of the whole plant king-

dom, than can be obtained of the animal world through similar type study. However, the general principles which I present regarding botany, hold with more or less accuracy for zoology or any biological subject.

At the outset, I assume that botany holds a position in the curriculum of the school. Certainly it does in every industrial school in any way dealing with problems of agriculture, as it should, in every school that aims to fit the student to live. The question is, What kind of botany shall be taught? This primary question at once resolves itself into two parts, namely, what kind of botany shall be taught as a general culture subject, and what of a technical, or more directly practical nature? The problem involved in both of these questions must, of course, be solved individually for each school in reference to the preparation and aims of the students, yet certain general principles prevail.

The second question as to the nature of the technical instruction is easy to answer, and calls for no discussion. Each instructor knows best the needs of the end toward which he aims. Plant physiology forms the foundation of plant breeding, horticulture and agriculture. Bacteriology has attained to a well defined field of usefulness. Mycology touches human interests in a most practical fashion at many points. The well defined scope of these subjects, and of pharmaceutical botany, leaves little doubt as to the nature of the instruction that should be given.

The difficulties rest not with the technical subjects, but with the fundamental and cultural work, which from its two-fold nature as a foundation, for the technical instruction to follow, and as a general culture subject must not be undervalued, or carelessly dismissed. As with every other constructive enterprise, a superstructure of bacteriology or mycology, a study of plant disease or perception depend not upon the eye but upon the spirit behind the retina. It is with the observational training and the general culture that botany brings its final victory. As a culture study it commands its place in the general system of education. Its need is no less imperative than that of literature, mathematics or history, and as a source of joy to those who live close to nature it transcends even these. A glance at some of the work accomplished by botany will best reveal its value and suggest the kind of instruction adequate. Botany appeals to and develops the powers of observation, reason, description, and imagination. It develops the ethical and æsthetic senses. It gives that key-note of knowledge which

discloses the kinship of the whole organic world, which broadens the sympathy and awakens interest in that keenest of all struggles, the struggle for existence, which continually wages between plants and animals of all kinds, amid all surroundings. As a culture study botany teaches fact, and eliminates that ignorance which surrounds even the most fundamental phenomena of life. The growth of the plant is watched, the rapidity of growth measured, the effect of various external conditions on growth are ascertained. The plant becomes in the eyes of the pupil a living thing. While sympathy is aroused the power of critical insight and judicial reasoning are invoked. Plants are studied in the field, their groupings, correlations, societies, and the etiquette, or the laws of their societies, are read in the lap of nature. The plant becomes a social creature, and plant societies become organic communities. Plants in various localities and under varying conditions are examined, environmental factors are weighed, and the plasticity of the plant becomes apparent. The student now approaches very close to the most stupendous secrets of nature. It is but a step to the question of the origin of species, and thence to the origin of life itself. The simplest of observations disclose the nature of the molds, rusts, smuts, mildews, and allied plants, concerning which such almost universal ignorance exists. While a glimpse reveals untellable beauty among their degenerate relations, the algae. The beauty of the gorgeous desmids and the delicacy of the graceful diatoms lingers as a memory in the mind of all observers, ever ready to brighten moments of retrospective quiet. The mode of propagation among the mosses and ferns, presents the curious, puzzling problem of the alternation of generations, the sporophyte and gametophyte in their full fledged reality. The beauty and grace of the fern sporophyte charms, while knowledge of its mode of propagation only enhances the pleasure given by its beauty. Again with the most intimate problems of physiology comes the question of fertilization, closely linked with that of the origin and function of sexuality. Allied to these are problems of phylogeny, the origin of the seed plants, the great problem of evolution, etc., etc.

Then the grandest and greatest of biological problems, the question which receives every day illustration in the lives of all, fall into place in the elementary course of botany. To treat of such subjects is part of the function of botany as a culture subject.

Much of the fundamental knowledge of plant physiology,

and ecology, of plant enchantments, is the rich and royal man. But nature study can not teach all. It yet remains for the secondary school or college to systematize and correlate. One year of elementary botany, biology or zoology should be given to introduce and to fix the broad principles of biology and—this as a culture and foundational subject when preceded by a good correlated course of nature study, through the grades. But what, you ask, of the industrial school which must receive pupils of no previous natural science training? Such problems unfortunately have to be met, alas too often. There seems to be no other recourse under such circumstances than to put as much information and theory into the time at your disposal as is consistent with the inculcation of a thorough love of nature. The primary object must be to develop the love for nature. This love needs no developing in the young child but the artificiality of life is such that by the time of adolescence this love may need retouching.

For fear that I may not have covered the point with explicitness enough, I wish to enter a protest against some kinds of botany that are too frequently taught. It is written in botanical history that in the earlier time, botany was the hand-maid of medicine. Knowledge of plants accumulated owing to fancied or real medicinal values. This knowledge, led to classification and this again to closer examination of the plants. Thus developed systematic botany. As the earliest botany was systematic so has the earliest botany in each new land followed the same path. The plants of a new country are classified and listed before other phases of botanical activity begin. In Europe and later in younger countries physiological botany and still later cytology, ecology, etc., followed tardily upon the heels of taxonomy. Means of communication are now swift, and American, Australian and Japanese centres now rapidly fall into step with the old German leaders, nay, may even do a part in the pace setting. Yet, while everything is to be hoped for in American botanical centres, it is a conspicuous fact that the American grade school and high school are yet in the stage of botanical evolution of pioneer times. It may be that there is lingering a suspicion of false psychology, a belief that the evolution of botany is repeated, as of necessity, in the development of the knowledge of botany in each individual. Be the reason as it may the fact remains that a vast amount of time is used in teaching what in reality is merely terminology, and taxonomy of the spermatophytes. A mere classifying of plants, a hunt to find a

name, the whole process being curiously enough denominated "plant analysis." The best that could be said of such plant classifying is, that if the real analysis is carefully done it compels close examination. The finding of the mere name of the plant adds comparatively nothing to the student's knowledge. It is extremely rare that even the principles of classification are grasped by the student. By an eminent American botanist the process has been likened to running a wood-chuck into its hole. All that you have is the hole. Even granting that the benefits are reaped at their maximum, the absolute neglect of the cryptogams with their great diversity of form, wealth of physiological problems, and important economic bearings is unpardonable. Equally great in such cases is the guilt in leaving the great far-reaching questions of heredity, development, physiology, evolution, sex and dozens of others, unraised in the mind of the student. It is a thrashing of chaff in the midst of grain. Another extreme form of botany dwells in painful detail upon histological features, and as it has been aptly put "the student fails to see the forest from too close an inspection of the leaves."

There is greater hope for the ultra microscopist than for the ultra systematist, however, as the systematist has the greater inertia to overcome. The recently opened and as yet ill-defined field of ecology gives an open road for the systematist to escape from servile slavery, gradually leaving his beloved keys to enquire more deeply into problems of why? and how? rather than merely what? The study changes from rigidity to plasticity.

Let the foundational botany fall between these extremes. Let it inculcate a love for nature, and a yearning to solve her secrets. Let it train the eyes and the mind to see, and develop the powers of analysis, judgment and reason. With this will come information, joy and power.

VALUE OF MANUAL TRAINING

ALBERT BARNES, CLEMSON COLLEGE, S. C.

When a stone falls to the ground, from a lofty height, it starts from rest with an almost imperceptible motion, gradually increasing its speed, until it reaches the ground with a velocity that can well be compared to that of a rifle shot. The avalanche of the

Alps, slowly gliding over the smooth rock of the mountain top, exerting a pressure that a man could easily oppose, gathers force as it moves, and finally plunges into the valley with the roar of a storm and the destruction of a tornado.

To one who reads the history of mankind from the earliest time to the present, and compares the life of the ancients with that of the middle ages, and then in turn with our own, this same law of accelerated progress seems to hold true. At present our national growth is amazing. We are expanding in all directions. The balance of trade with foreign nations is in our favor. Our manufactured goods are seeking entrance into all the markets of the world. The Southern states are enjoying the general prosperity. Cotton mills, formerly peculiar to New England, are now located upon our streams, while iron and coal industries once the sole possession of Pennsylvania, now bring wealth to Alabama.

The possibilities of invention seem to be unlimited. The telephone and electric light which were novelties at the Centennial Exposition are necessities today. Cyrus W. Field laid the Atlantic cable and established communication between the continents. This past week we hear that Marconi has received signals from across the Atlantic without the use of wire or cable. If this be true it will soon place telegraphy along with the old-fashioned things. Truly we may say with Macaulay "A point that yesterday was invisible is the goal of today, and will be the starting point of tomorrow. The invention and use of machinery has so increased the producing power of man, that Mr. Gladstone estimated that the aggregation of wealth on the globe during the whole period from the birth of Christ to the American Revolution was equaled by the production in the 20 years at the middle of the last century. One man today, aided by machinery, is able to do the work of 250 men of colonial times. The machinery of Massachusetts alone represents the labor of 100,000,000 men, while the power used to drive the cotton mills of South Carolina represents the working force of the entire white population of the state.

Yet with this great advance in art, science and invention, it is evident that the schools of this section are behind their place in the onward march of progress. The methods that prevailed a quarter of a century ago, are out of place in the school room of today, and must be modified to meet the conditions of this industrial era.

In 1897, it was my privilege to say a few words at the state

teachers meeting in Greenville, as to the desirability of introducing manual training into the schools of the state. Since that time we have had several such schools established, but there is room for many more. The school of today must be an institution of manual as well as of intellectual training. To be sure each state maintains an agricultural and mechanical college, and some times other schools of a similar nature where special technical branches are taught; but this education is expensive and within the reach of only a limited few. The great mass of the students must receive their school education in the common schools, and the best way to adapt these schools to the conditions around us is to add manual training departments.

A manual training school is not a new idea, the fancy of some idle dreamer, but a system of instruction developed by long years of experience by prominent educators of Europe and America. A manual training school does not seek to teach a man a trade, but rather to give him a well rounded education; to develop the whole man, not one filled with knowledge yet unable to apply it; a man trained not in manual skill alone; but one who has mind and body trained together, who sees and thinks correctly, and whose hands execute what his mind directs.

Manual training departments can be added to any school system, the cost being less than many might suppose. A small sum of three or four hundred dollars will enable any village or city school to make a creditable beginning. Schools with no larger fund than that mentioned can at least teach elementary wood work and drawing. Wood working tools cost \$6 or \$8 per set, and a dozen sets are enough, since the tools can be used by different sections. Work benches are not costly and can be built in the room. The instruments for drawing are not expensive, and can be easily obtained. With this small equipment and a competent instructor, a school can give a degree of instruction that will be highly beneficial to the students. Experience has shown that few if any of the studies formerly taken need be dropped for the new work. In many places, membership in classes of manual training is made conditional upon good work in other branches. It is a privilege granted to those who take some interest in their class work. The only time for this instruction is the class period, which for young pupils should not be over two hours in length. The success of a manual training teacher may be gauged by the interest he develops in his students for their work. And the short period seems neces-

sary that none may weary, and lose enthusiasm. I believe from my experience of six years as a teacher, that it is possible to take any twenty boys, and in two weeks time so interest them that they will be willing to work twice the number of hours required. Who ever knew a boy that did not have a fondness for making things. The shop work should be given by exercises each one of which is a step in advance, bringing into play new methods, and new assemblages of parts, and skill. In the drawing, which I believe should be taught with all manual training work, the student sketches from models and then later makes working shop drawings, showing the plan, elevation, and end views. When therefore a drawing is placed in his hands he sees at once in imagination, the article in its material form.

In all of this work he obtains not only manual dexterity in the use of the tools employed, but learns accuracy, observation, reasoning and judgment. The value of the mental training which he receives is as great as that derived from the training of the hand.

It is frequently asked: "Can manual training schools be made self-supporting?" No, they are not factories. When a student has acquired that skill that makes him a competitor of the journeyman, it is time to advance him to a more difficult piece of work, with harder problems to solve.

Now if these methods of instruction are of such value to boys, why not extend the manual training idea to girls? Why deprive a girl of these manifest benefits simply because she is a girl? If industrial training is given in the normal schools for girls, why not give it in the public schools as well? One of the greatest difficulties that will confront the introduction of the manual training system in the South, is the securing of competent teachers for the work. Why not then give some attention to this in summer schools? It is entirely feasible. And in the short period allotted for teachers' instruction, many could receive knowledge and training sufficient to enable them to start classes in this work. The great demand for technically educated men in the South today comes from the fact that our schools are all along literary lines. While these are doing good work, they are not supplying men of clear perception, accurate judgment, and who are not afraid to work. The question that the world of business puts to a young man today is, "What can you do." Literary culture has its claim in any scheme of education, but the problem before a young man is to make a living. The prose of existence claims our attention be-

fore we can indulge in the poetry of life. The question of providing a livelihood can not be eliminated by any system of philosophy, and education should fit men for the battle of life.

The numerous factories and industries in our midst call for skilled men to direct their energies, and the youth of today needs something more in his education than proficiency in mathematics, English, and the languages. This something the manual and industrial school will give. That the old type of education does not fit men for the world of today is shown by many instances. A graduate of a Northern university at a recent alumni dinner spoke of his alma mater thus: "In these days of repeating rifles and breech loading guns, Harvard sent me and my classmates into the strife, armed only with the sword and spear and javelin of the ancient gladiator. We went forth to conquer Roman legions and Macedonian phalanxes, but found them not. Rome and Greece of our studies were no more. The sacred altars were deserted, the fires of incense had long since gone out, the priests had left their sacred callings and become tillers of the soil or workers of metal. We found no place for our talents. We were not in sympathy with anything. No pulsating string of progress beat in harmony with our souls. And finding no place for our talents, we became teachers and sought to teach the youth of this practical age those unpractical things that we ourselves had learned."

DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session—Columbia Female College, Friday, December 27, 2:30 P. M.

The department met in the chapel of the Columbia Female College at 2:30 p. m. and was called to order by the President, Miss Patty Hill, of Louisville, Ky.

Mrs. Hal. W. Richardson, of Columbia, S. C., gave the address of welcome on behalf of the city, which was responded to by the President.

The first speaker on the program was Dr. Wm. Flinn, of the South Carolina College, Columbia, S. C. His subject was, "The South's Great Need of Good Kindergartens."

The second subject for discussion was "What do you consider the most important features of the Kindergarten from the standpoint of preparation for later education." Miss Willette Allen, of Atlanta, Ga., and Miss Martha G. Bachus, of Savannah, Ga., were to take part in this discussion. Miss Bachus, being ill, her paper was read by Miss Evelyn Holmes, of Charleston, S. C.

One of the most interesting features of the meeting was the address of Dr. W. T. Harris. He gave a short, interesting account of the first kindergarten work done in connection with public schools in this country. He also emphasized the need of kindergartens—especially for certain classes of children—the weaklings of the slums, and the precocious children of the newly rich. The latter, coming from parents of great directive power, have strong wills which need just the training that the kindergarten gives.

The next speaker was Prof. Patterson Wardlaw, of the South Carolina College. Prof. Wardlaw made a few well chosen remarks expressing his interest in the kindergarten and his faith in its success.

Committees on Nomination and Resolutions were appointed.

The meeting adjourned.

*Second Session—Columbia Female College, Saturday, December 28,
2:30 P. M.*

The department was called to order by the President. The minutes of the Richmond meeting were read by the secretary.

The discussion for the afternoon was, "What modifications do you think should be made in kindergarten methods in the light of modern criticism?"

Mrs. Ida M. Lining of Charleston, Miss Minnie Macfeat of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C., and Miss Evelyn Holmes, Charleston, S. C., took part in this discussion.

Dr. Caswell Ellis, of the University of Texas, gave a most interesting and instructive talk on the same subject. He spoke of Froebel's great work, "The Education of Man," that work proved Froebel to be a great philosopher of education.

Dr. Ellis was followed by John J. McMahan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction in South Carolina, who gave a most encouraging talk to the department.

The committees on Nomination and Resolutions then made their reports.

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

OFFICERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTENS

President—Miss Minnie Macfeat, Rockhill, S. C.

Vice-President—Miss Blanche Finley, Columbia, S. C.

Secretary—Miss Willette Allen, Atlanta, Ga.

The following resolutions were read and adopted:

RESOLUTIONS

Whereas, the officers and members of the department of Kindergartens of the Southern Educational Association wish to express their gratitude to the kind people of Columbia for courtesies received; therefore, be it

Resolved, That our thanks be extended to Dr. W. W. Daniel, for giving us the use of the pleasant chapel of the Columbia College for our meetings; to Mrs. Hal Richardson for instructive words of welcome to the city; to the Columbia Kindergarten Association, for the delightful reception given in the commodious hotel parlors, so courteously tendered for our use by Mrs. Chas. Wright; to our United States Commissioner of Education, Hon. Wm. T. Harris, for coming to us with words of encouragement and valuable advice; to Dr. Flinn, to State Supt. McMahan, Dr. Caswell Ellis, and Prof. Wardlaw, who assisted on the programme, and to the Press of the city for full report of our meetings.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be entered upon our minutes and a copy sent to the city papers for publication.

WILLETTE A. ALLEN,
EVELYN HOLMES,
Committee on Resolutions.

MINNIE MACFEAT, *Secretary.*

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

MISS PATTIE S. HILL, PRESIDENT

I thank you in the name of the Kindergarten Department of the Southern Educational Association for your words of welcome and the spirit of hospitality which surrounds us. We can but hope that this department will be able to repay some of the debt of gratitude we owe the citizens of Columbia in general and the kindergarten board and our most honored hostess in particular, in the renewed interest in child life, which we trust our meetings will arouse.

The true kindergartner is, in the best sense of the word, the

friend of childhood, and for this reason also we are glad to accept the welcome bestowed upon us.

Though we are only a few years old, we feel much good has been done for our cause, in holding before our own Southland a high standard of kindergarten work.

We can look back over our past meetings in different cities in the South and see that new kindergartens have sprung into existence, or that new interest has been aroused in kindergartens already in existence; that mothers' clubs and classes have been organized, together with many other manifestations of an increasing insight into the valuation placed upon the earliest years of childhood before most states see fit to begin education.

Columbia has opened the friendly doors of the kindergarten to many of her needy children in the mill districts, and we shall feel more than repaid for our visit to your city if our meetings in this department inspire new enthusiasm in this great work which is being done for the little children of the South.

*WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER THE MOST IMPORTANT
FEATURES OF THE KINDERGARTEN FROM THE
STANDPOINT OF PREPARATION FOR
LATER EDUCATION?*

MISS WILLETTE ALLEN, ATLANTA, GA.

Education to be effective must become an organic whole covering the period from earliest childhood to the close of formal study.

The most important feature of any particular phase of education is the bond which brings it into vital relation to the whole. This bond is found in the ideals of education. Owing to the fact that there are varied points of view among our teachers we have developed methods of education which lack unity and indeed are sometimes rather seriously at variance when we consider that we have the same child to work upon.

If kindergartens are to prepare for later education—and I most certainly think they ought so to do—we must know the nature and methods of the work which is to follow our own.

But as a matter of fact even our common school curriculum seems lacking in uniformity of content when we come to consider

carefully the work as it actually exists in the hands of teachers with widely differing ideals. If teachers e. g. with knowledge getting as the ultimate end and aim of school work handle both the subjects of study and the child in a way strongly contrasting with that of her sister teacher who holds "character building" as the ideal in view and uses the subjects of study as a means to that end, the conditions to be met in the two cases are almost diametrically opposed and a child prepared by kindergarten training to do the best work in one school would possibly be an unsatisfactory pupil in the other.

The teacher who has as an ideal the delicate balance between the intellect and the heart values intellectual culture as it gives understanding of the laws of the universe and broadens man's opportunity of exercising and increasing his power over the forces of nature to the end that he may serve well his fellow man.

When educators are agreed as to the educational end in view there may be possible such harmony of purpose from nursery to university as will enable us to decide with some degree of uniformity upon the specific needs of a given stage in the educational life and to determine what shall be the previous preparation necessary for that stage.

From a local standpoint the practical question just now is how to prepare our pupils to meet the present existing demands of the average primary school without sacrificing the principles we hold sacred as fundamental in the eternal values of life.

A conference with our primary teachers of the first and second grades called forth appreciative testimony regarding most characteristics of kindergarten children, notably their appreciation of the beautiful and true, their unusual fund of general information, their superiority in composition work, better expression in reading and greater ease in understanding number combinations. We most naturally expect that the frequent discoveries of number relations in the varied uses of the kindergarten material, the constant expression of thought on subjects of vital interest; the investigation of objects, facts and phenomena and the continuous search for the beautiful and true in nature and in character should produce exactly the results reported. But we also learn that some of our children give their teachers trouble from the desire to express their views upon all subjects of interest discussed in their presence, from their restlessness when unoccupied, and from their demand for individual attention. In the minds of many of the teachers of the

public schools these perplexities of discipline outweigh the advantages previously enumerated and the kindergarten child is not a welcome applicant at their door.

Other teachers express themselves emphatically as preferring the kindergarten child, saying that the work of arousing the enthusiasm of the child who has never been in the kindergarten is greater and more difficult than that of quelling the over-wrought enthusiasm of the kindergarten child.

We fully recognize the fact that any teacher with sixty children to care for can have little time to consider individual interests, powers or capacities. At the same time we retain the conviction that it is the special business of the kindergarten to do this very individual work and we do not believe that kindergarten work must inevitably result in making a child less capable of the best behavior as well as the best work in any school.

I do think that in our kindergartens we should increase the emphasis upon considerate attention to the comfort and pleasure of others. I believe there was never so great a need for this phase of education as now since the marvelous increase in the spirit of independence in our young America.

I think also that in many cases more care should be taken to awaken in the children a pardonable pride in self-dependence.

A task that presents some difficulties—such as the teacher knows can be overcome with a legitimate amount of effort, should be welcomed by the child.

We had very happy results one month this autumn from the very unorthodox occupation of building a store. Our boys had many a valuable experience in contriving ways to overcome obstacles and bring their work to successful issue. The making of measures for use in the sale of grain, the making of balance scales for weighing butter and other necessary commodities were accompanied by such eagerness as recognizes no discouragement and the fact that the product of the work was neither mine nor thine but ours and that the whole kindergarten enjoyed the opportunities it afforded for securing much raw material not to be found at the kindergarten supply store gave a social and economic value more far-reaching than a hundred weight of words on industry, perseverance, unselfishness, kindness and the whole category of virtues. We gain the most valuable lessons of life through experience, and, yet, apparently too often, expect words to suffice for our children.

The school with its large numbers and pressure of work can not take time for the slower methods possible to the kindergarten and it seems to me that there are few things more important for us to accomplish during these early years than arousing a genuine interest in subjects worthy of investigation and future study and promoting the growth of the will to do thoroughly and well whatever the present moment demands.

If man's mission in the world be mastery over self and surroundings and if it be the task of education to fit him for a career as conqueror of all unholy thoughts, greed and selfishness; as subduer and director of force through intelligent effort; if it is to fit him for a living embodiment of principles of justice, charity and brotherly love, let us, as kindergartners, work toward this end.

That I may have failed to give a satisfactory answer to the question in point I do not deny. I have merely indicated stepping stones across a water over which we need secure transport.

The opposite banks can only be spanned by the uniting arches of common purpose and when boards of education, school superintendents and principals combine in constructing the piers and laying the sleepers. I think we are safe in asserting that the kindergartners and primary teachers will cooperate in building the uniting bridge.

DISCUSSION

MISS MARTHA G. BACKUS, SAVANNAH, GEORGIA

There are so many ways in which the kindergarten is the best preparation for later education that it has seemed impossible to choose between such subjects as art, music, language, literature and manual training as they are used in the kindergarten. As these special subjects will probably be fully taken up in the course of the discussion, I shall confine myself to what I believe to be the foundation of all good teaching; right coordination. Of course this is a physiological question quite as much or more than a psychological one, but it seems to me to be at the very basis of all good work. Coordination, or to use the term preferred by physicians, *accommodation*, is the proper and ready use and control of all those nerves and muscles that must work together harmoniously to produce right motion, so that what the mind decides upon the motor apparatus can carry out without loss of time and without any uncertainty of action.

Sometimes a lack of coordination is due to congenital causes, sometimes to a wrong condition of brain, but often it is due to a want of right training. Bad training is worse than a lack of training, for if the law of proceeding from the use of the fundamental to the accessory muscles

be disregarded or reversed, nervous diseases or at least a tendency to them usually results. Two cases have come under my supervision this year. One, a boy of ten, with apparent paralysis of the left side, and almost no articulation. The verdict of the best physicians was lack of accommodation from congenital causes, retarding development. There was no mental weakness, for the child's mind could form correct ideas; but his nervo-muscular machinery was only partially under control. Although beyond the kindergarten age, he is now in that department, and we are making a "test case" of him. Each day he learns to articulate distinctly a new word; he is given tongue gymnastics like those used in deaf-mute schools and he has exercise for the control of his legs and arms. He is improving every day. The other case was a boy of six, of unusually good mind, but whose bodily movements seemed at times entirely beyond his control. We had him carefully examined and the result showed that there was no structural defect in the spine as we had feared, but a disease of the spinal cord, producing lack of coordination. In both these cases the advice was to keep the children in the kindergarten, as it was at present the only system of education that dealt adequately with the physical child.

Everything that a child does in later life has its root in this matter of right coordination. If it be thought that I am dwelling too much on the purely physical side, reference may be made to the psychologist, James, who says that our mental states are largely influenced by our motor expressions, and that if we say that we are sorrowful because we cry, and cowards because we run away, we are very near the truth. (Talks to Teachers). He also advocates manual training not primarily for the quickness and dexterity which it brings or because it teaches a useful trade, but for the changes it produces in the size and activity of the brain-cells, and for its use in forming those connections between brain, eye and hand so necessary for the production of a high type of individual development. Dr. Dewey also both in theory and in practice is an advocate of quick and ready coordination. Any one who has watched his school-work has had preached to him a powerful sermon on the value of the best use of the motor apparatus and its connection with mental development. In his educationally inspired "Creed" Mr. Dewey says:

"I believe that the active side precedes the passive in the development of child-nature, that expression comes before conscious impressions, that the muscular development precedes the sensory—that consciousness is essentially motor."

The neglect of this principle he believes to be the cause of a large part of the waste of time and strength in school-work.

Now, because this principle is still neglected by many schools, the kindergarten must emphasize it. In marching, hopping, jumping, particularly in all forms of rhythm work, in games, in free play, in free drawing on the board with the flat of the crayon, the coordination of the fundamental muscles of trunk, legs and arms must be established. In clay modeling, in basket weaving and the other accepted forms of manual work, in the right use of the gifts, the coordination of the more accessory muscles takes place. Too much can not be said in favor of the enlarged gifts, especially for the smallest children, and a warning is necessary to the inex-

perienced about the danger of using material that requires control of the smallest muscles and the focusing of the eye-sight on a small point. These are the occupations that have given the kindergarten the name of an institution that over stimulates, and the sooner they are all dropped, the better for us.

Right coordination means a ready use of the body, a quick perception, an eye trained to observe and measure space, an organism into which a feeling for rhythm has been permanently ingrained; a set of secondarily automatic movements of the best sort, a habit of almost instantaneous motor response to an idea presented, a control of movement, and concentration of mind, a symmetry of development, a soundness of judgment, a justness of decision and a general mental calibre, that makes for the up-building of the best character that can be found. In the struggle after mental rectitude and spiritual clearness success is won with far greater ease if the body be physically sound than if that body be "our enemy, instead of our ally."

No good training school is now without its especial physical training, to give the students that freedom from self-consciousness and a spontaneity that is absolutely necessary to true self-expression. How much better to begin at the right end of the line and form habits in the child that will last him a life-time and give him self-control, simplicity and freedom.

A PLEA FOR THE MORE EXTENSIVE USE OF NATIVE MATERIALS IN THE OCCUPATIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN

MRS. IDA M. LINING, CHARLESTON, S. C.

It was with great pleasure that I received the invitation of our president to address the kindergartners of this association, and yet I hesitated, because at first thought it seemed to me that every subject relating to kindergarten must already have been presented by able exponents of the philosophy of Froebel. Realizing, however, that the true kindergartner is always lenient as well as sympathetic, I determined to bring before you a subject to which I have given much study. I trust that I shall gain at least your interest, while I make a plea for a more extensive use of native materials in the occupations of the kindergarten.

According to my interpretation of Froebel, he meant that all teaching should be adapted to the environment of the child. I find that he selected materials most convenient to the locality in which he lived and that he forced nothing of a foreign nature upon his children, not even, indeed, their teachers. These, as a matter of

fact, were chosen not only for their intellectual fitness, but for their familiarity with the children he had gathered into his little community and with the children's environment.

He looked to the German women to bring to a fuller development the childhood of the German nation. He brought these women, as well as the children, into daily contact with nature; he did not fill their hands with foreign materials and preach "nature" and "sequence," "cause and effect" without giving that actual contact with nature, without which a true understanding of it can not be obtained. His songs and games emphasized the industries and interests with which the children were familiar, being essentially peculiar to the locality in which they lived. The great German philosopher and unconscious psychologist, became himself a German child with a German child's interest in German surroundings, and thus he struck the keynote in the chord of harmonious development—interest: interest in one's own environment.

In Germany Froebel told the story of the flax, had he lived in South Carolina it would have been the story of the cotton boll. In Germany he sang the song of the fir tree, here it would have been the palm and the pine. I am inclined to think that what the ultra-conservative are pleased to call *innovations* upon the materials given by Froebel, the best his loving heart could suggest for the education of the German child, are really a close following of the teaching of the master. Does he not say, "The play and playing of the child must be in harmony with his surroundings." Many of us, I am afraid, spend too much time in searching for methods when we should really be looking for principles. I believe one of the strongest principles of Froebel—one that I find underlying all his philosophy, to be, "Make the best of your own resources." How else can we expect to develop and perfect the children. Get a child to think well of his home—of the natural gifts of that home, and you will have made at once a patriot and a utilitarian. This is an industrial age—a practical age—and we should pay more attention to the needs of our people and shape our work and select our material accordingly. It is in the kindergarten that we may lay the cornerstone at least of the foundation, upon which to build the superstructure.

After a close study of Froebel's "gifts" we fail to see where any improvement could be made, except perhaps in the matter of size. These fundamental forms, both concrete and simple, are to be found in nature everywhere as well as in every work of man.

The material used in their construction is common to almost every land. Thus the builder of our system builded with more wisdom than, perhaps, he knew when he made these arbitrary fundamental forms.

This plea for the use of native materials is not meant in any degree to be an attack upon the materials given by Froebel as occupations of the kindergarten; some of them like the "gifts" are adapted to all nations.

It must be remembered that Froebel lived early in the past century and died when the kindergarten was yet in its infancy; that the world moved more slowly then than now, and that there were many reasons why he should view life differently and plan his work accordingly, but it would be as absurd to say that he thought that he had invented a system of education so infallible that it admitted of no change, no improvement or adaptation to environment as to say that our children must not ride upon an electric car, speak through a telephone or imitate any of these things, because Froebel knew nothing of them. We need but to hold firmly to the spirit of Froebel's teaching. The letter should be subject to change. There are no two environments in the world exactly alike. What we have to do with the child is to put him in the correct attitude toward the world he is trying to know.

The South is rich in material of all kinds. I can not believe that one whose soul was so full of love and appreciation of the beautiful in nature, who lived so close to his own home as Froebel would fail to recognize the magnitude of our resources. He would have understood why the Southern heart is bound up in home. He would have known that human nature in the South is emotional, tender and sympathetic. He would also have known that for this very reason, it is necessary that we should teach our children that these lavish gifts of nature have not been given us simply that we may love and admire, but that we must utilize them and develop industry and progress. The South is an ideal land, and because of that and because there is no nobler people on earth, we must be, each one of us, under individual obligation to keep the South in the front ranks of civilization. We should not depend upon others to come and find out how rich we are, but ought to use our eyes, our brains and our hands; realizing we have all the materials at hand that are essential for most of our needs.

We can do much of this in kindergarten. We can place our beautiful palmetto in the hands of our children for free weaving

and for constructing baskets and many articles hitherto made of paper, raffia and foreign materials. We can take our children unto nature. We do not do it half enough, although it is just at hand. They would gain tenfold more in intelligent interest if we took them with us to gather native grasses, rushes, and the beautiful fans, as they are called, of the palmetto. Of this last we can teach a volume while we gather and weave. We can make them familiar with its growth and give them increased respect for home productions if we will but spare the time to tell them how these palmetto logs made the fort impregnable before the fire of the British guns. We can secure specimens of native woods and barks. Then there is the fleecy staple in which so much of the wealth of the South, past and present lies. With us of the coast there is the ocean with its wonderful treasures. The very sand could hold their interest indefinitely, not to speak of the shell, the sea creatures which crawl about the beach, the fungi and sea-anemonies, all of which can be made into articles of beauty. Why do we not use our own kaolin instead of imported clay? Thus beginning at home, with a child's own interests and teaching him that his home is the mine from which he may dig his fortune and make his happiness, we can by connected stages take him over the whole related world.

In other localities other interests exist, it needs but a little exertion to find them, but a little ingenuity to adapt them. Close observation has shown me why there is not a freer use of nature and nature's gifts with some kindergartens. So many hours are used up within four walls that could be spent more profitably in the open if only to dig in the dirt, one material which is almost universally "native." I have heard of some places where sunshine and good, wholesome dirt are unknown quantities. I thank God I do not live there.

SOME MODIFICATIONS IN KINDERGARTEN METHODS DUE TO MODERN CRITICISM.

MISS MINNIE MACFEAT, WINTHROP NORMAL COLLEGE.

At this season of the year we are reminded in many beautiful ways of the search of the wise men for the child. That search is not ended—the wise men of today still seek the little child. His star still shines in the East and ever and anon it gleams upon the

searchers, revealing and illuminating truths but dimly perceived before. Foremost among those who have seen the light and who "have sought diligently for the young child and his mother" stands Froebel, the great pioneer of child study. As we read that wonderful book of his, "The Education of Man," we are amazed at his insight into the laws of mental development. As we read the Mother Play, we are thrilled by the exquisite tenderness and sympathy with which he drew aside the veil, and revealed that holy thing, a mother's heart. In our reverent wonder and joy at the truths which he saw, we have almost forgotten that the search is not ended, and that to each of us comes the command, "Go forth and seek the child."

Indeed, not only do we fail to seek ourselves, but some of us virtually declare that the search has ended; that the light has gone out. And when there have come to us those who fain would tell us of new truths, of new glimpses of the child, unseen perchance by Froebel, we call out "false prophets," and putting our fingers into our ears, refuse to listen. All this of course is contrary not only to common sense, but contrary to the teachings of Froebel, who never for one moment supposed, humble follower of the child that he was, that any disciple of his would cease his search for the child and worship himself instead. Such a view of our great leader is dishonoring. We fail to catch his spirit when we fail to grow.

Never before have there been such opportunities for growth in that highest of all knowledge—the knowledge of the little child. The investigations of child-psychology are revealing important truths. Biology, neurology, physiology, embryology, and anthropology are making wonderful disclosures and offering important suggestions to the educators of little children. In the light of modern research let us read our "Kindergarten Bible," "The Education of Man," and our greatest surprise will be, not that Froebel saw so dimly, that his mistakes were so many, but that he saw so clearly and that his insights were so true. Let us catch the spirit of progress that breathes in every line, let us listen to his plea for freedom—freedom for the little child. Let us turn on the flash-light of Froebel's own philosophy and examine ourselves.

One of Froebel's clearest insights, was the recognition of stages or epochs in the child's mental and physical growth. He saw that each higher stage is reached by passing through a more primitive stage, that the lower stage may differ essentially from the

highest stage, and that what is truth for the child today may not be truth tomorrow. He pleaded that the child might have the nourishment suited to each stage of development through which he passes. One of the criticisms passed upon the old education is that it violated these stages of development, demanding of one stage what properly belongs to another.

We, the followers of Froebel, wrapping ourselves about in the garments of self-complacency, "have thanked the Lord that in this respect we are not like other people."

We, of all people, know all about stages of development. We have properly defined the "fence lines" of these stages and are giving the child just what he needs and at the time he needs it. A voice from the far West speaking as one with authority says: "My personal conviction after considerable practical study of children who came from the kindergarten is that the fundamental weakness of the prevailing kindergarten consists in its gross neglect of instincts which properly belong to its period, and attempts prematurely to develop instincts which do not bud until the adolescent period."

To help us in correcting these departures from true Froebelian principles, the recent investigations of child study stand ready. From these researches we learn that certain instincts are nascent at this period. That this is the period when the child most readily and rapidly acquires vocabulary. The language instinct is great, let us, therefore, put into the kindergarten, "the best incentives possible to excite into activity those nerve centers concerned in the function of oral expression." This agrees with Froebel's directions to mothers to associate words with the ideas which the child gains through his play.

We learn that this is the age for forming clear, definite mental images—let us give the child the right material out of which to construct his images. It is an age of observation—for becoming acquainted with his environment to which he is such a little stranger. And so, true to Froebel, we would bring him in personal contact with the things about him. He should see, touch and taste—use all his senses on the objects around him. It is the age for expression, impressions must be deepened and made clear by expression. This too was Froebel's thought. He would give the child material through which he might express himself—make the "inner outer," as he says.

Right here we strike the "rock of offense" in the view of many.

Psychologists criticise much of the material used in the kindergarten. Neurologists tell us that this is the period for "the adjustment of nerve and muscle in all the courser, more fundamental movements; that the finer muscles used in placing accurately the small material of the kindergarten are overtaxed, and the child is made nervous.

Is this a fault in material, or an error in the use of it?

Some of us find that small children like small material if they can use it freely, and if they are not forced to make patterns to a line, placing lentils or tablets or sticks according to some definite plan of arrangement made for them by grown up people.

Some of us remember when we played with the tiniest buttons we could find in mother's work basket, with the baby beans from the pan in which she was shelling them, or pebbles from the brook. But we used them in our own sweet fashion and no one said to us, "Thus far shalt thou go and no further." It may be the abuse and not the use of the material that is responsible for some of the nervousness. Then too when we played we were not cramped for space. Nobody sat jammed up on each side of us to jostle and displace our constructions or designs. Woe to nerves and temper when this happens, as it does a score of times a day around the crowded kindergarten tables. Some modification as to the seating of children is needed as well as a modification of material. If the material be enlarged—and no doubt some of it might be with advantage—care should be taken that it be not too large or too heavy for the child.

After all, perhaps more reform is needed in the use of the material than in its size. Froebel intended the gifts as playthings for the children. Should they be used as a medium through which "to smuggle sugar-coated instruction, wofully or ignorantly mistaking childish curiosity for the spirit of scientific investigation?"

Shall we use them for the inculcation of geometric truths? Is the little child of three or four geometrically or mathematically hungry? Which would he rather build—a car-shed or a trapezoid? Some one has said that the child at this stage "has a feeling for geometry"—well feed the feeling, the gifts in their very form supply the food, but do not force the crystalization of "geometric feeling" into accurate scientific knowledge. The child has the counting instinct also at this period, and the gifts offer many opportunities for developing this; but do not force mathematical expression here. He learns incidentally that four and four are eight and that

one-half of eight is four before he can or ought to give formal expression to it.

Broaden the horizon of the child's experience by all means, but do not attempt to give him definite instruction. That is the work of the school.

Not only is the size and use of material open to criticism but its adaptability to needs of the child. Does the Froebel material furnish the best and only means of expression? Can this material be added to or taken from with benefit to the child? Much has been said relative to the use of "outside material." No material is outside material in the true sense of the word, unless it should be outside the child's sphere of mind or experience. In that case it would, of course, be a pedagogic crime to consider it for a moment. Outside material, however, in the sense of material not provided or referred to by Froebel is what we are considering. Surely we do not violate any principle of Froebel's when we bring into the kindergarten any material which will be the truest medium of expression for the child—provided the material be such as the child can use, and as he can manage easily himself, of proper weight and size, and lending itself readily to the child's thoughts.

Nature provides an abundance of material, the use of which would certainly not break any sound pedagogical law. There are twigs for furniture, mosses for carpets, acorns for dishes, berries for stringing, grasses for weaving, etc. Many of our kindergartners are making much of the doll instinct, believing that the truest development of the emotions results from these instructive plays. They are building also real homes for their doll families—they are making real furniture of real wood with real hammers and nails. The splendid coordination of muscular movement which results from this proves its right to a place in a system which makes much of the physical development of the child. We are recognizing the need of freer plays in the kindergarten, especially a freer use of the ball from which so many happy results are attained.

Of modifications of the kindergarten occupations it is scarcely worth while to speak. They are being carefully tested, and some of them having been convicted of being harmful to the physical development of the child, have been discarded. Fine sewing, the intricate paper mat, the elaborate sequence in paper folding, must go. And there is no discourtesy to Froebel in the manner of their going.

He would be the first to bid them go in the light of today's

knowledge concerning the physical development of the child. The true kindergartner places herself in line with the progress of the day, and welcomes any suggestion which modern research and practical experience have to offer. She is true to Froebel when she does so; she is not true when she follows him in letter but not in spirit. Not mistaking "nervousness for progress," holding fast that which is good until we find the better, let us go forward, remembering, however, that "he who goes gently goes safe, that he who goes safe goes far."

WHAT MODIFICATIONS DO YOU THINK SHOULD BE MADE
IN KINDERGARTEN METHODS IN THE LIGHT OF
MODERN CRITICISM?

MISS EVELYN HOLMES, CHARLESTON, S. C.

The question for discussion presupposes a kindergarten of the past, when methods differed to a greater or less degree from the methods of to-day. It also intimates that the changes or modifications have been brought about, in part at least, through the influence of friendly or unfriendly criticism. We will assume that only intelligent, scholarly, fair-minded criticisms are to be considered. Even then the kindergartner is often sorely perplexed by the avalanche of criticism which falls upon the followers of Froebel. We have all heard or read such criticisms as these:

"Too much play destroys the power of effort, and unfits for later life."

"Too much work taxing the child's brain beyond its normal capacity and arresting development."

"Too much attention to rhythmic exercises, exciting unduly the emotional nature."

"Too much symbolism, making an artificial standard of values for the little child."

"Too much sentimentality in story and moral teaching, tending to evolve a race of moral invertebrates."

"Too many nerve-destroying occupations with the accompanying injurious effects on mind and body."

In truth to believe all modern criticism, the kindergarten is decidedly unpedagogical and unpsychological, a menace to good health and good morals.

No doubt all this honest criticism is deserved, here a bit, there a bit; moreover, it is to be borne in mind that there are still pseudo kindergartens in the land. Sometimes, it seems as if the critics on their hunt for facts to prove their theories confine their visits to the latter class.

I remember hearing a prominent child student and kindergarten critic read a paper, full of very severe criticism, to a club of kindergartners. The discussion that followed convinced his audience if not himself that he was

aiming his shafts at a few doubtful kindergartners rather than at the rank and file of the profession.

Madame Matilda Kriege, the first kindergarten normal teacher in Boston, once said: "One must thoroughly understand before he can improve a system." Before we need to consider a critic seriously we may well question whether he has a good understanding of Froebel and his pedagogical methods.

Having satisfied ourselves that our critic knows by experimental knowledge whereof he speaks, we may proceed to modify—but before so doing, let us pause awhile and consider "modifications."

Some time ago there appeared in one of the kindergarten periodicals two articles on "changes in kindergarten materials." The author called especial attention to "enlarged gifts" and "nature materials," intimating that these changes have their origin in the criticisms of the psychologist and child student. But are such changes altogether modern?

Froebel modified his own material considerably in regard to size, during his adaptation of it to his educational system. He continually made modifications in form, as for instance from the ball to the cylinder. He evidently added and subtracted forms and had not reached the end of his modifications when his labors ceased and the kindergarten stood, for better or for worse, before the critics, friends and educators of his day and ours.

The writer in the review just referred to says: "It seems now to be a recognized fact that Froebel himself only indicated some of the material, his immediate pupils carrying out his suggestions after his death and in some cases supplying links that were needed to complete the logical sequence as designed."

Froebel evidently did hold strongly to the relation of one form to another, whether the unit be one, two or three inches.

It seems to me that the one thing that Froebel strongly emphasized for educational uses is material from nature and plenty of it; not only as such but in connection with the more perfect forms of the kindergarten materials. If the child is to develop according to nature, he must have plenty of opportunity for such development through observation and handling of natural objects.

Then for other educational reasons, such as the development of the spiritual nature, he chose employments such as the garden, the care of animals and the home duties. Carpentry and basket weaving are certainly hinted at as of educational value.

Thus kindergartners of today may enlarge material and introduce so-called "outside material" without of necessity going to the critic for permission. Criticisms have been often directed to the manner of presenting the kindergarten materials to the children, but as Froebel's students themselves interpreted him very differently, and the same liberty of thought is enjoyed by his followers now, it is a little hard to find the common ground, and in spite of critics each kindergartner does or can do her own investigating and carry out her own convictions. Differences of opinion on such questions are formed among our leading kindergartners, just such differences as occur always among strong, independent thinkers.

The International Kindergarten Union gives expression to these differences while also emphasizing the unity of all, and is doing more than any other force to bring desired results in kindergarten practice.

In so dealing with this question the point is made that whatever of change occurs in the point of view of a kindergartner and therefore in her practice, modern criticism is not the only nor even the strongest force. It has its work to do in making the kindergartner more reflective and studious in regard to her work, but it is too uncertain and too haphazard in its application to make it a safe guide to change and modifications.

Criticisms of worth, however, have their foundation in new developments and discoveries in the physiological and psychological laboratories.

As the kindergartner led by the critic, perchance, studies these sources for herself, she may indeed change her practice. She thus follows closely in Froebel's footsteps, who planned his every day work with children on the highest physiological and psychological knowledge of his day.

Modifications, the result of such study, are already apparent, notably the discontinuance of the fine hand work and the advance in larger, simpler designs; a greater freedom in the use of pencil, brush and crayon, and a carrying over into higher grades much geometric knowledge and complicated form making.

Games follow more closely the law of development of the physical nature and the social instinct; the manner of handling the "gifts" and other materials is more natural and the symbolism of the kindergarten is the child's own.

Thus the wise kindergartner is building on the foundation that is laid, and proves her faith in Froebel's psychology by her willingness to follow along his lines of practice and discovery.

A quotation from the article already mentioned pays this tribute to the modern critics and I feel sure that all will agree with the author when she says: "The genius of Froebel is seen in his general accord with the scientific researches of today; we have no longer kindergarten principles but educational principles, the method of application differing according to the stage of development.

"We need not, therefore, feel that we belittle Froebel by acknowledging our indebtedness to those who from their experiments and studies have hung out some signals of danger for us to heed, and have suggested means to further our ends more effectually."

For the encouragement of the conscientious kindergartner who is, perchance, doubtful about changes and modifications, I will quote once more: "The kindergarten will not suffer in principles by the introduction of any modified or outside material that will help the child to understand and to conquer his surroundings. The child is of more value than the system and we but show ourselves true disciples of Froebel, when, with his aim and in his spirit, we utilize every means at hand to train the child through his instinctive tendencies to that freedom which is the goal of all education."

[This Summary should follow Minutes of Departments of Higher and Secondary Education, page 141.]

RELATION OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SYNOPSIS

W. B. HILL, CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

(The speaker stated that he had not received an invitation to prepare a paper on the subject of "The Relation of the Colleges and Universities to the Public Schools," but that on seeing such an announcement in the programme shortly prior to the Christmas holidays, and feeling assured that the mistake was due to some accident or error for which no one was blame-worthy, he had within the short time left prepared a few notes on the subject. The invitation he had received was "to take part in the discussion of a paper.")

The topic was introduced as follows:

In the literature respecting the "Relation of the Public Schools to the Colleges and Universities" various metaphors have been called into service to express the abstract idea. Among these metaphors are the following: foundation and pinnacle, the bottom and top of an inclined plane, the wide end and the small orifice of a funnel, the base and summit of a pyramid; and even the scriptural image whose head was fine gold and whose feet were iron and clay. Assuming that in the relation thus figuratively expressed, the whole range of the subject is included from primary to higher education, from the country school that "keeps" two months in the year to the university which deserves the definition of Hon. James Bryce, "a place where the most advanced learning of the time is taught on a broad and comprehensive scale," the topic seems to assume the form of a chapter in that book with which we have already been threatened, "The Psychology of the Unrelated."

In 1898 the total enrollment in all the schools in the United States, elementary, secondary and higher (including public and private) was 16,687,643. Dr. William T. Harris estimates that excluding private schools of all classes and grades, the total enrollment in the public schools would be fifteen millions.

The metaphor of the funnel recurs to the mind when we realize how the millions at the entrance end of this system shrink in the secondary stage and dwindle at the mouth of graduation. And yet every one of the teeming millions who spells the A. B. C. of learning is veritably related to the other extreme of the scale by the possibility that he may reach the university. How this may be in America is beautifully brought out in Mr. James Lane Allen's story, the Reign of Law. He describes a poor lad on a Kentucky

farm, "an obscure item in nature's plan," apparently destined to be a perpetual prisoner of

"—those twin-jailers of the human heart
Low birth and iron fortune."

But no!

"Can you remember your youth well enough to be able to recall the time when the great things happened for which you seemed to be waiting? The boy who is to be a soldier—one day he hears a distant bugle: at once he knows. A second glimpses a bellying sail: straightway the ocean path beckons to him. A third discovers a college, and towards its kindly lamps of learning turns young eyes that have been kindled and will stay kindled to the end. * * * It was of this university then, that he was happily day-dreaming as he whetted his hemp hook in the depths of the woods that Saturday afternoon. Sitting low amid the heat and weeds and thorns, he was already as one who had climbed above the earth's eternal snow-line and sees only white peaks and pinnacles—the last sublimities."

This concluding line in Mr. Allen's description of his juvenile hero reminds one of another like instance in Mr. Thomas Hardy's "Jude, the Obscure." It is a pity that this book is in later stages so sad a prostitution of the author's genius, for there are few finer pictures in literature than that with which the story opens—that of an eager, restless English lad, whose home was in a village near Oxford, near enough for the spires of its churches and colleges to be seen. The boy thought that the glories of the sunset skies descended upon the classic scenes which bounded the horizon of his hopes as well as of his vision. The American boy's dream came true: the English boy's was rudely disappointed. In later life, he found himself in Oxford, an obscure laborer, sensible of the difficulties in the situation and yet with the unappeasable hunger of his boyish ambition. When he approaches timidly and almost despairingly the university authorities—he meets a chilling and cruel rebuff—an incident which would have been impossible anywhere in this country!

Primary education will not chiefly concern us in the present discussion, but its relation to the universities and colleges is suggested not only by the possibilities of the American schoolboy's career but by that definition of school instruction which has secured the full approval of Dr. Harris. Writing of elementary education in the United States, he says that school instruction is the process of reenforcing the sense-perception of the individual pupil by adding the experience of the race as preserved in books and it is more especially the strengthening of his powers of thought and insight by adding to his own reflections the points of view and critical observations of books interpreted by his teachers and fellow pupils. Instruction even in the primary grade, carried on by teachers of sufficient intelligence to comprehend and of adequate training to apply that definition, might not improperly be said to stand in relation to university work.

One of the earliest and most interesting efforts to formulate a complete scheme of education and to solve the problem now under consideration is that associated with the great name of Thomas Jefferson. (Here the

speaker gave an account of the convention which met in Virginia in 1818, of which James Madison and James Monroe were also members).

In the state of Georgia we are accustomed to claimed priority over the scheme of Jefferson. Whether this claim is well founded or whether it is a mere local boast that has escaped contradiction only because it has not been promulgated where it would challenge opposition or denial, can not now be determined. At any rate, it is true that the charter of the University of Georgia which was drawn in 1785, contains the following sections:

"Sec. XIII. The Senatus Academicus, at their stated annual meetings, shall consult and advise, not only upon the affairs of the university, but also to remedy the defects and advance the interests of literature through the state in general. For this purpose it shall be the business of the members, previous to their meetings, to obtain an acquaintance with the state and regulations of the schools and places of education in their respective counties, that they may be thus possessed of the whole and have it lie before them for their mutual assistance and deliberation. Upon this information they shall recommend what kinds of schools and academies shall be instituted, agreeably to the Constitution, in the several parts of the state, and prescribe what branches of education shall be taught and inculcated. They shall also examine and recommend the instructors to be employed by them, or appoint persons for that purpose. The president of the university, as often as the duties of his station shall permit, and some of the members, at least once in a year, shall visit them and examine into their order and performances.

Sec. XIV. All public schools instituted or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this state, shall be considered as parts or members of the university, and shall be under the foregoing directions and regulations."

The authorship of the charter is in some doubt, but on the authority of Richard Malcolm Johnson is attributed to Abraham Baldwin, a graduate of Yale.

It is evident that to the mind of the author of the foregoing words there was present a coordinated system of state education—extending from the primary or common schools, through the secondary or high schools, up to its crown in the university, and all under the supervision and superintendence of the latter.

Consideration of the topic was then taken up under the three following divisions:

- 1 The entrance examination.
- 2 Examination or inspection of the secondary school.
- 3 Voluntary association.

The difficulties and objections of the first method were pointed out, while under the second, the system in Michigan, California and New York was described. Under the third head an account was given of the association of New England colleges and preparatory schools; the association of colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland; the North-Central association of colleges and secondary schools; and the association of colleges and preparatory schools of the Southern States.

While there are special advantages in each of the three methods and also objections peculiar to each, the last named is believed to be the one from which the best results can be obtained. The chief objection to the first two methods is that they take the form of criticism of the secondary school, descending from the college or university as being above the former, while the third method brings the school and college together in consultation and recognizes both as equally interested in a common problem.

[These remarks should follow Dr. Utterback's paper, page 139.]

DISCUSSION

MISS ELIZABETH M. GETZ, SUPERVISOR OF DRAWING, CHARLESTON, S. C.

In Minneapolis where manual training has been taught so generally in the schools, the cost of providing necessary materials has been comparatively small. The outfit for the elementary knife work in wood for the fourth, fifth and sixth grades consists of a knife, try square, T square, compass, ruler, pencil, paper and thumb tacks, and, of course, the wood. These are arranged very compactly in a case, or kit, which serves as a drawing board when pupils are making their free-hand sketches or working drawings of the models. The total cost of one outfit when bought in quantities is about \$1.25. In most of the schools of Minneapolis one set of outfits, containing as many trays or kits as there are students in the largest class in manual training, is sufficient for the entire school. The kits are passed on from one class to another. This requires that two classes in manual training shall not meet at the same hour.

This plan of having the materials so compactly arranged when not in use enables the teacher to give them out and collect them very quickly. It also instills in the pupils habits of order and neatness in caring for other peoples property.

In the same city the girls take sewing in the classes corresponding to the boys elementary sloyd classes; while cooking is the parallel course for the girls to the bench work for the boys in the seventh and eighth grades. In the high school, manual training, including bench work in wood, cabinet making, metal work and wood carving, are elective for both boys and girls.

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Auburn Polytechnic Institute	Auburn
J. D. Matlock	Birmingham
J. H. Phillips	Birmingham
Miss Lulie Jones	East Tallassee
John W. Abercrombie	Montgomery
L. V. LaTaste	Montgomery
R. F. Moor	Montgomery
A. F. Jackson	Rock Run
John Massey	Tuskegee

ARKANSAS

Junius Jordan	Fayetteville
J. H. Witherspoon	Fine Bluff

CONNECTICUT

G. S. Dickerman	New Haven
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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

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G. Walter Chambers	St. Petersburg
John C. Calhoun	Tallahassee
Wm. N. Sheats	Tallahassee

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D. L. Earnest	Athens
W. B. Hill	Athens
Miss Willette Allen	Atlanta
E. O. Clark	Atlanta
G. R. Glenn	Atlanta
R. S. Nash	Atlanta
A. J. Woods	Atlanta
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Mercer University	Macon
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 Miss Pattie Hill Louisville

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 Miss J. B. Gray Asheville
 T. B. Hamby Asheville
 R. J. Tighe Asheville
 Miss Florence Stevenson Asheville
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 J. A. Baldwin Charlotte
 Alexander Graham Charlotte
 C. W. Edwards Durham
 J. I. Foust Goldsboro
 P. P. Claxton Greensboro
 Miss Bessie Hagwood Greensboro
 Charles D. McIver Greensboro
 Miss Mary M. Petty Greensboro
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 Rev. T. D. Bratton Raleigh
 E. P. Moses Raleigh
 J. W. Thackston Raleigh
 A. B. Hill Rockingham
 Miss Laura E. Falls Statesville

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J. H. Penniman Philadelphia

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 S. Lauder Anderson
 E. C. McCants Anderson
 T. C. Walton Anderson
 James Aldrich Aiken
 L. W. Dick Aiken
 Elizabeth Falls Aiken
 W. H. Jones Barnwell
 Miss Edith Townsend Barnwell
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 Ernest Wiggins Batesburg
 Neils Christensen, Jr. Beaufort
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 Nathan Toms Bennettsville
 Thos. G. Wilkinson Blacksburg
 A. Buist Blackville
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 Charlotte Boykin Boykins
 G. P. Shingler, Jr. Boykins
 Margaret S. Burnet Camden
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Miss M. P. MacMillan	Charleston
Miss C. A. Marshall	Charleston
Miss Anna W. Marshall	Charleston
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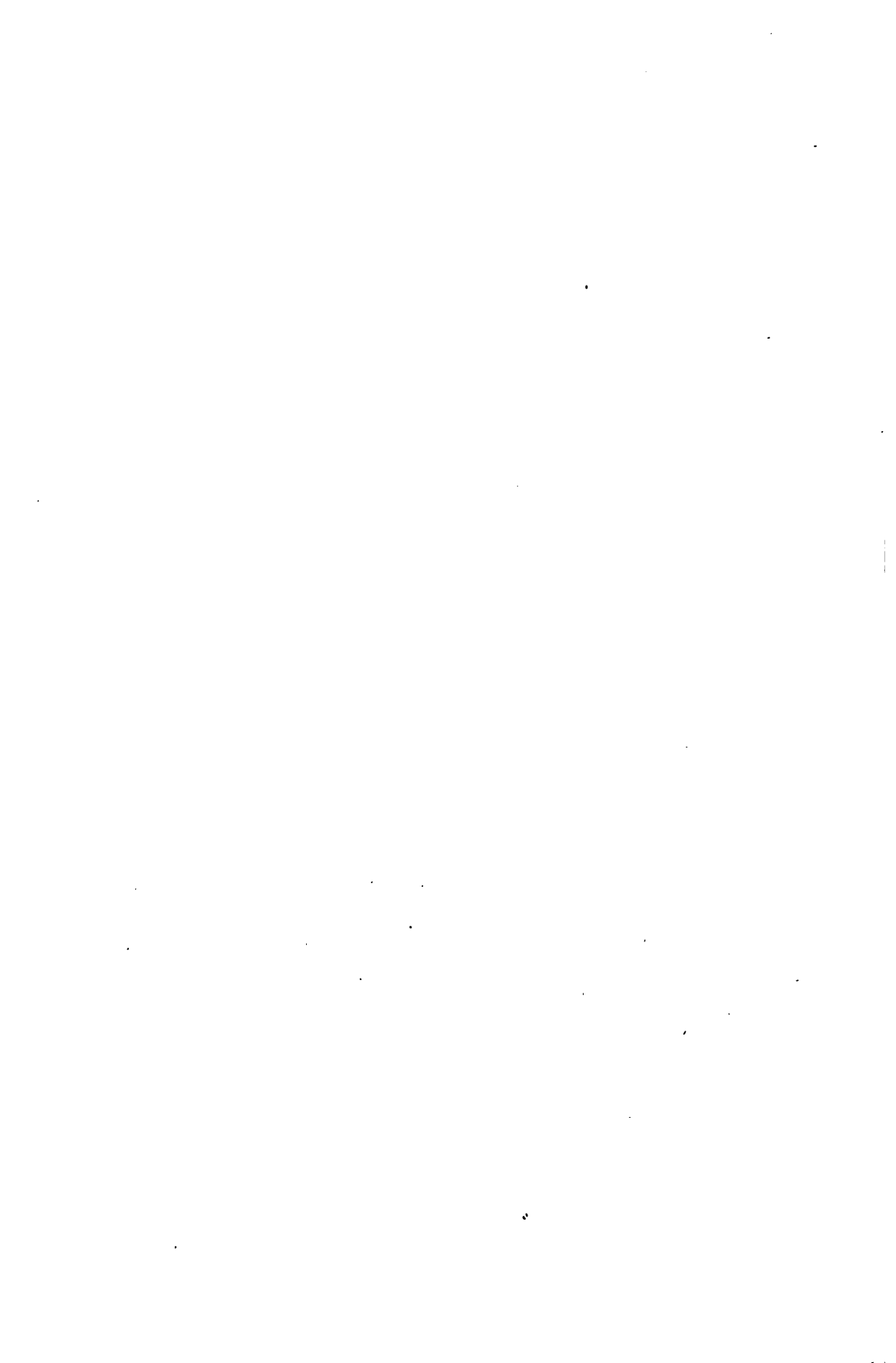
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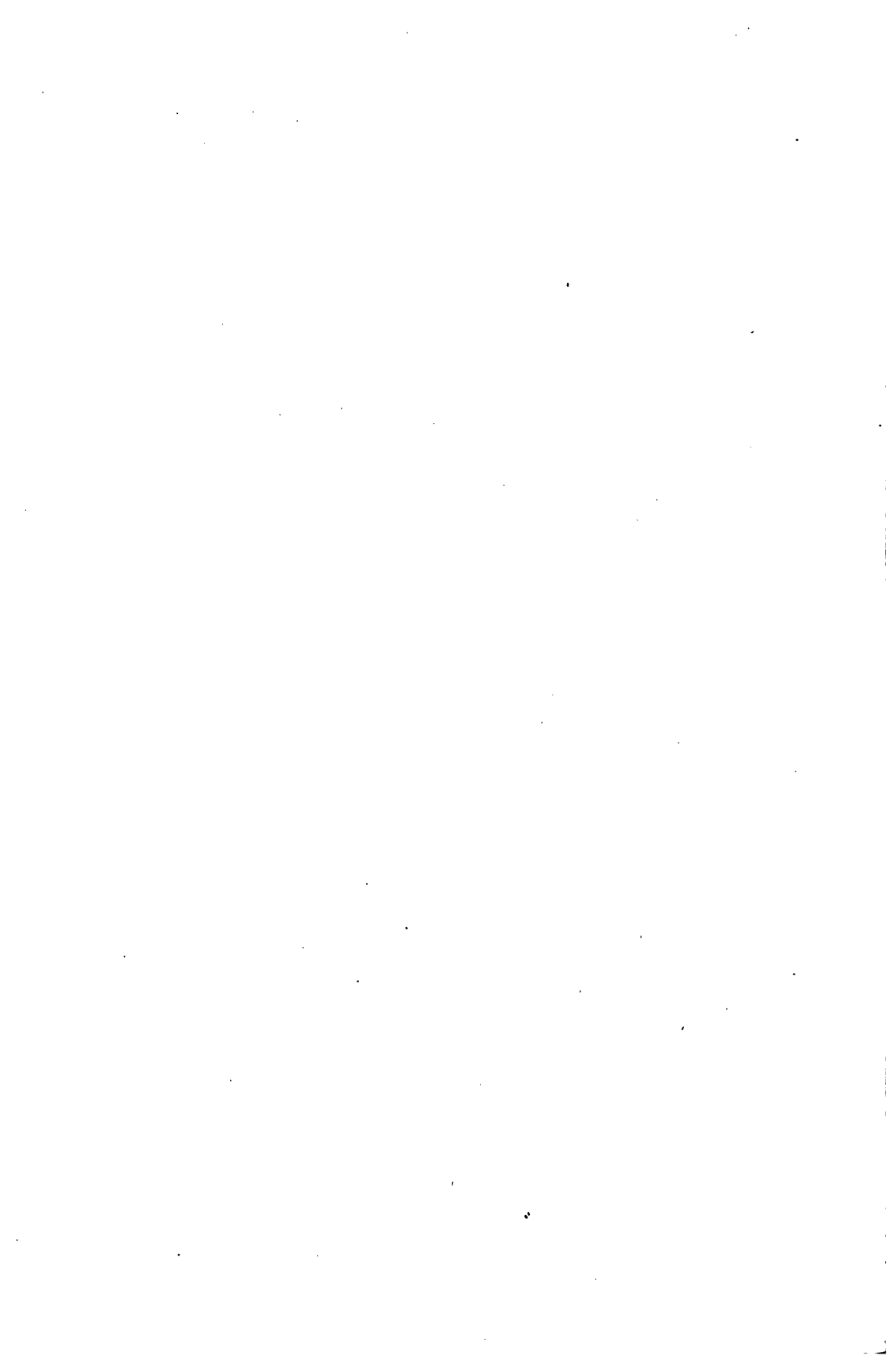
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